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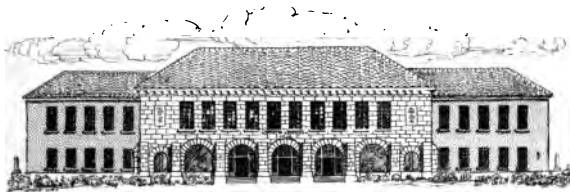
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# NATIONS OF THE WORLD:

*THEIR RULERS AND STATESMEN.*

BEING AN ACCOUNT OF THE ORIGIN OF THE NATIONS, THEIR  
PRESENT GOVERNMENT, RULERS, POLITICAL PARTIES,  
AND STATESMEN ; TOGETHER WITH ENOUGH OF  
THEIR RECENT HISTORY TO INDICATE THE  
QUESTIONS NOW BEFORE THEM  
FOR SETTLEMENT.

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**NATIONS OF THE WORLD.**

## PREFACE.

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IN the following pages, devoted to the nations of the world, the aim has been to include those countries that possess an organized system of government, whether it be a pure despotism or its other extreme—a pure democracy, or any of the many varieties between. It will be found profitable for young Americans to study other forms of government, in order that they may compare them with ours, and also that they may see the extent to which the principles of democracy have made their way, even in most monarchies. Points will be found in which some governments are superior to that of the United States. These discoveries will be profitable ones, for they will tend to moderate that conceit with which Americans as a nation are charged.

The writer has endeavored (1) to show the extent of territory over which each government exercises control; (2) to give enough of the history to show the origin of the present governments; (3) in the case of leading countries, to narrate interesting facts in regard to the rulers, political parties, and statesmen, together with enough of the recent history of the countries to indicate the questions that are now before them for settlement; (4) to define the different kinds of government, and classify the forms existing at present in accordance therewith. It is believed that the book will be a profitable one to use in school in connection with geography and history lessons.

The principal books consulted in the preparation of this volume are: *Lippincott's Gazetteer*; *Peterman's Elements of Civil Government*; *Raleigh's Elementary Politics*; *Chase's Civil Government in Theory and Practice*, and *Rulers of the World*; *Rand, McNally & Co.'s Atlas of the World*; *Sanderson and Hardiman's Epitome of the World's History*; and *Stone's History of England*.

V. S. W.



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# NATIONS OF THE WORLD.

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## Chapter X.

### INTRODUCTION.—GOVERNMENTS AND THEIR POWERS.

The power that makes, interprets, and administers the laws we call the government.

**Origin of Government.**—The origin of government was doubtless the ability of the ruler to maintain authority, but even the most despotic ruler could not long maintain it without the consent of at least a portion of those whom he governs. However, if the people are careless or indolent, or ignorant of what they want, or lacking in energy to enforce their rights, a powerful ruler may overpower their feeble resistance.

Governments are established for the purpose of maintaining various personal or property rights, which are adjusted according to fixed principles of law. In addition to making and enforcing these laws, the government must attend to the relations with foreign countries, and to the defence in case of war.

Systems of government usually grow up, adapting themselves to the natures, wants, and circumstances of the people. Thus they change according as the people advance or deteriorate.

**Monarchy, Aristocracy, and Democracy.**—In the formation of the modern state three principles have been combined and applied in various ways—the principles of monarchy, aristocracy, and democracy. (1) The principle of monarchy is that discipline is best secured by causing all orders to be issued in the name of a single person. When states were organizing men naturally placed themselves under a chief, who became their ruler. Under this head are various types of government, of which one of the main forms is the *despotic monarchy*. In ancient times this

was the prevailing form of government, and a number still survive, as those of Russia, Turkey, Persia, etc. The despotic ruler assumes that his power comes from God. He is therefore free from all human limitations; he is responsible to God only, and not to his subjects. Some despots govern well, but such vast power intrusted to one person is usually abused.

The prevailing type of monarchy at the present day is the *constitutional monarchy*. In this the king maintains his place at the head of the state, but in all matters of importance he is compelled to ask the advice and consent of persons representing the interests and opinions of his subjects. These persons guide him in choosing his ministers, in raising his revenue, and in every act of his government.

(2) The principle of aristocracy is that the wisest and most considerable portion of the community should form a separate class or order, and should exercise a larger measure of influence than ordinary citizens. In primitive society, respect was paid to those who were most directly descended from the common ancestor. In modern society, we do not speak of a common ancestor, but we do defer to the notion that some families are better than others. The aristocracy of birth in England, for instance, is still a close one; no merit or favor can confer all the privileges that belong to persons of what is called good birth. But a continual process of adoption goes on by which the most successful people are ennobled, and their children added to the number of those who enjoy special consideration on account of their birth. One advantage of aristocracy is that it affords a check to persons who might become despots. It also supplies a body of persons who have a certain hereditary acquaintance with public affairs. The evils of aristocracy are that members of that class are usually unwilling to admit that any of their privileges are odious or oppressive; hereditary dignities often descend to persons quite unfit to exercise power or make good use of social influence. It might be noted here that the principle of aristocracy is at work in republics as well as in monarchies. Even in the United States, although the constitution forbids the conferring of titles of nobility, there is a sort of untitled aristocracy among those families who have been successful in securing wealth or social position.

(3) The principle of democracy is that all persons who are fit to perform the duties of citizens should have a share in the direction of the state. It holds that the whole power of the government is delegated by the people to certain persons to be exercised in the interest of the community. If it is not so exercised, then the people have a right to displace them and choose more faithful servants. This form of government requires great intelligence among the people, and the exercise of the highest type of patriotism among rulers. The main difficulty in such governments is that the average citizen is slow in his perception of the general inter-

est, and much tempted to use his power for the advantage of himself or his class. Democracy allows every qualified person to express an opinion on affairs of state, but it cannot secure that every person's opinion shall influence the action of the state. When we speak of "the will of the people," we mean the will of the majority for the time being.

The principle of democracy\* seems to be the one which will hereafter prevail in modern states, even in those which have a hereditary ruler and a titled aristocracy. In most civilized countries the doctrine of the "divine right of kings" is practically dead; church and state are parting, and the people are insisting on more and more voice in the government. At the same time the extension of education to the masses is fitting them to judge of their rights and whether their rulers are performing their duties. In *republics*, unless the people guard their interests closely, they are exposed to the wiles of designing and ambitious men. The South American republics furnish frequent examples. There it is a common occurrence for a bold, unscrupulous man to get control of the army or navy, seize the government in violation of the constitution, and inaugurate a *military despotism*, under which the forms of law and the rights of the people are often disregarded.

**Powers of Government.**—Governmental powers are limited in one or both of two ways—by the establishment of a fundamental or organic law, i.e., *constitution*, or by the division of power. Constitutions are framed in various ways, and are usually the result of a compromise between the governor and the governed. Divisions of power are made (1) horizontally—that is, in the forming of local and general governments; and (2) vertically, in the classification of co-ordinate powers.

In dividing the power between local and general governments many conflicts are likely to ensue. The powers of the general government are defined by a constitution with which none of the laws of the states, provinces, or other divisions must conflict.

As to the other, or vertical, divisions, they may be classified into the law-making (legislative), law interpreting and applying (judicial), and the law-executing (executive) powers of the government. In despotisms the ruler usually exercises all these powers himself or through his agents. Free governments, however, divide the duties between different men and bodies of men, in order that they may act as a check upon each other and thus prevent an abuse or unwarranted assumption of power.

In constitutional countries there is always a legislative body,

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\* A *pure democracy* is a government conducted by the people in person, like the town meeting in the New England and other states. It is practicable only in a community so small that all the people can assemble at the seat of government. A *republic*, or *representative democracy*, is a government conducted by representatives elected by the people.

consisting of one or more chambers, whose duties it is to prepare and adopt laws. The members are sometimes elected by the people, sometimes appointed, and sometimes occupy their positions by hereditary right. The judicial department consists of an entirely different body of men, who interpret and apply such laws as are brought to their attention by citizens. By far the greater part of the administration of government consists in carrying out laws whose meaning is not a subject of dispute. This is the executive or administrative power of government, and is intrusted to a department entirely distinct from the legislature or the courts.

All independent states have *autonomous* (self-governing) powers and *sovereign* (treaty-making) powers. Dependent states have autonomous powers, more or less complete, but have no power to make treaties. If a state is independent of other governments, it is called a *sovereign* state; if one state establishes a *protectorate*, or *suzerainty*, over another state, the former is *suzerain* and the latter *dependent*. The extent of the power of the suzerain varies greatly in different cases.

**Federations.**—It is often the interest of states to form a federation or union, with a general government to represent them in their relations with foreign governments, and also to discharge those duties that concern the union as a whole. In these cases the powers of the general government are supreme in international affairs, but limited in internal organization. Most countries are subdivided into provinces, with councils possessing legislative powers more or less complete, but these differ from federations in that the original power in them is vested in the national government, and not in the component states. A republic like ours, consisting of a federation of equal states, is called a *federal republic*. Such a republic as France, where the central government supervises affairs in all parts of the country, is called a *centralized republic*.

In the following pages the aim has been to give an idea of the governments of the world, in which all varieties are exhibited, from the absolute monarchy to the representative republic with a liberal constitution, like the United States or Switzerland.

## I. EUROPE.

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### Chapter XX.

#### *GREAT BRITAIN AND HER POSSESSIONS.*

**GREAT BRITAIN.**—England and Wales, Scotland and Ireland, and the adjacent islands are known as the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland.\* The coast of Great Britain is indented with numerous estuaries, furnishing great harbors capable of accommodating the commercial marines of many countries. It is to these that it chiefly owes its commercial supremacy, while its extensive beds of coal and iron give it great advantages in manufacturing. In cotton and worsted manufactures and ship-building also it takes the lead.

The kingdom became united through a slow process of consolidation. Edward I. subdued Wales in 1280. Scotland successfully resisted all efforts to conquer it, and became united to England by the succession of James VI. to the throne of the latter country in 1603 as James I. From the time of the introduction of Christianity into Ireland in the fifth century, until its conquest in 1174, it was divided up into a number of petty kingdoms. Since then it has made many attempts at freedom, which have been put down with a strong hand.

**Queen Victoria's Reign.**—Victoria, who came to the throne in 1837, was the daughter of the Duke of Kent, and a niece of the late king, William IV. In 1840 she married her cousin, Prince Albert of Saxe-Coburg-Gotha. He died in 1861. The heir to the throne is Albert Edward, Prince of Wales, born in 1841. Since the time of George I. the little kingdom of Hanover in Germany had been a possession of England, but as the law excluded females from the throne upon the accession of Victoria, Han-

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\* As each country is studied, trace out its extent on the map. If a historical atlas, giving the changes of political boundaries at different periods, can be obtained, it will aid greatly in giving an idea of the rise of present governments, especially those of Europe.

over once more became independent. In 1866 it was annexed to Prussia.

The "Chartists" began their agitation in 1838. In a document they called the people's charter they demanded universal suffrage, vote by ballot, paid representatives in parliament, equal electoral districts, the abolition of property qualification, and annual parliaments. When these demands were refused by parliament there were numerous scenes of violence and riot. Next followed the movement of the Anti-Corn-Law League for the repeal of duties on breadstuffs. Through the efforts of John Bright and Richard



**QUEEN VICTORIA, OF ENGLAND.**

Cobden the repeal was passed in 1846, and carried into full effect in 1849. The Chartist movement was revived in 1848, but soon died away.

In 1841, under the leadership of Daniel O'Connell, the subject of the repeal of the union between Ireland and Great Britain was agitated. O'Connell was imprisoned, but soon set at liberty. Many of the leaders of a similar agitation in 1848 were transported for life. About one third of the clergymen of the Established Church in Scotland seceded in 1843, and formed what is

known as the Free Church of Scotland. One of the most terrible famines of modern times occurred in Ireland in 1846-47, on account of the failure of the potato crop.

From 1838 to 1842 England helped the Afghans against Persia. The placing of a prince of a former reigning house on the throne aroused such violent opposition that Afghanistan was abandoned. During this war, Sind, a rich territory around the lower waters of the Indus, was annexed to India by Sir Charles Napier. The invasion in 1845 of British territory by the Sikhs, living in the district called the Punjab, gave the occasion for the annexation of their country to the British domain. In 1852 a war with Burmah resulted in the acquisition of Puge; and in 1856 the kingdom of Oude, long under British protection, was formally annexed.

The English army in India was composed largely of sepoys, or native soldiers. In 1857 the government decided to arm these troops with Enfield rifles, for which greased cartridges were used. A belief spread among the native troops that this was an attempt to make them give up their religion by compelling them to bite the fat of swine and cows, the use of the former being defilement to the Mohammedan, and of the latter sacrilege to the Hindu. The mutinous spirit started in the Bengal division and spread rapidly. Delhi became the rallying-point of the mutineers, which was taken by the English after desperate fighting. Lucknow was relieved by General Havelock, after holding out for some time against overpowering numbers. The revolt was ended in 1859, after horrible outrages on men, women, and children, and the relentless punishment of their perpetrators. An important result of the rebellion was the transfer of the government of India from the East India Company to the British queen.

Since the time of Napoleon a compact has existed among the five great powers of Europe—England, France, Prussia, Russia, and Austria—to preserve what is called the balance of power. This is to prevent the larger nations from absorbing the smaller ones, and any one state from exercising too great an influence. This has twice brought England into collision with Eastern powers. In 1840 the viceroy of Egypt revolted against Turkey, and also tried to get possession of Syria. An English fleet soon put an end to his operations. Again in 1853 Russia demanded to be named protector of the Greek Christians in the Turkish empire, and being refused occupied the Danubian principalities, in which these Christians lived. This brought on the Crimean war, between Russia on one side and the English and French on the other.

Among the great events of Victoria's reign was the passage of the penny-postage bill in 1840, and the establishment of the money-order system. The form of oath for members of parliament was amended in 1858 so that Jews could belong to that body. In 1869 a law was passed by which the peasants of Ireland could ac-



quire an interest in the soil they cultivated. In 1868 the Irish church was disestablished, and the support of religion among all sects made a voluntary matter. A system of public schools was established in 1870.

The question of the protection of Greek Christians in Turkey led to a war between Russia and Turkey in 1877-8. A few weeks after this war was over a defensive treaty was secretly made between Great Britain and Turkey, one of the conditions of which was the occupation by the former of the island of Cyprus. The expedition to Abyssinia in 1868 resulted in the destruction of Magdala and the death of King Theodore. Fiji was annexed in 1874, and the Transvaal in 1877.

**Government.**—The kingdom has no formulated organic law, the constitution consisting of the acts of parliament, as interpreted by the courts. Every parliament is restrained only by tradition and custom from making changes. The force of precedent, which guarantees the permanence of the British constitution, also invests the house of commons with supreme legislative authority, giving the house of lords a mere veto power. Nor is the sovereign empowered to withhold his approval of any measure on which the people are really determined. The parliament, although supreme, is not a self-existing body. The sovereign alone can summon it, and no parliament can assemble of its own accord except in case of the death of the sovereign. But the king (or queen) is obliged by law to summon parliament at least once in three years; and since certain appropriations are made for one year only, the ruler is practically obliged to call the body together yearly.

The house of commons has the power to appropriate money, levy taxes, and grant supplies to the crown. It is composed of knights of the shire, or representatives of the counties; citizens, or representatives of the cities; and burgesses, or representatives of boroughs. The franchise is limited by a small property qualification.

The upper house of parliament consists of peers who hold seats (1) by hereditary rights, (2) by creation of the sovereign, (3) by virtue of office—as the English bishops, (4) by election for life—as the Irish peers, (5) by election for duration of parliament—as the Scottish peers. The crown is unrestricted in the creation of new peerages in England, but in Scotland and Ireland, where the peers elect their representatives in parliament, the crown is restricted in this power.

The executive power rests in the hands of the ministry, who are not only members of parliament, but are responsible to it in every particular. The parliament is also recognized as the highest court of law, from which there is no appeal. The queen holds her crown by act of parliament, which, after the revolution of

1688, settled the crown on the Protestant heirs of the Princess Sophia of Hanover.

Parliament is the outgrowth of the Witena-gemot, or assembly of wise men, whom the Saxon kings used to summon about them. Its power was established by Magna Charta, which the barons forced King John to sign. Then, in addition to the lords temporal and the lords spiritual, were included representatives of the people; but it was not until the reign of James I. that the house of commons became prominent as a separate chamber of parliament. The revolution of 1688 made the house of commons the strongest thing in the state, and established the principle of ministerial responsibility. The three kingdoms—England (including Wales), Scotland, and Ireland—each had a parliament up to 1707, when the Scottish parliament voluntarily merged itself with that of England. The Irish parliament was abolished in 1800.

**The Rise of Political Parties.\***—In all states where the people have more or less control of the government parties exist of necessity. *Toryism* in England held that the monarchy, the aristocracy, and the church were appointed by Divine Providence to afford the required guidance. They maintained that those in power should serve the public good, but did not admit that the people had a right to criticise their manner of performing their duty. *Toryism* insisted that the church was the nation, although a large part of the nation was outside of the church altogether.

Sir Robert Peel ably managed the change from *Toryism* to *Conservatism*. He accepted the Liberal principle of toleration by admitting Catholics to political rights. The Conservatives are faithful to the monarchy, the aristocracy, and the church, yet they do not pretend to maintain the doctrine of authority. While they wish to curb the advances of democracy, they recognize the power of public opinion. The Conservative wants to keep as much of the old constitution as he can, yet how much of it can be kept is a question he must leave to his leaders to determine.

The friends of absolute monarchy were known as Tories, that is, Irish ruffians—probably because the Stuarts raised troops among the Irish to use against their English subjects. The friends of parliamentary monarchy came to be known as *Whigs*—that is, sour Scotch fanatics, because of their connection with the Presbyterianism of the North. The Whigs won in the revolution of 1688 and the establishment of the Hanoverian dynasty. They regarded the constitution as a system of checks and balances. They would not allow the king to act except through ministers having the

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\* The words Conservative, Liberal, and Radical, as here defined, mean substantially the same as applied to political parties in the different countries of Europe or elsewhere. The Conservative is one who, as a rule, wishes no change in existing institutions; the Liberal advocates wise and careful reform; while the Radical is in favor of sweeping changes.

confidence of parliament. From the church they took away the power of independent action and made it a department of the state. They preserved the right of the crown to make peers at will. There was, according to their creed, to be no taxation without representation; no legal burden was to be imposed without the consent of parliament.

The party known as the *Liberals* first came into vogue about the beginning of this century, and was an outgrowth from the Whig party. While Conservatism means a firm but not immoderate attachment for existing institutions, Liberalism means an enlightened but not immoderate desire for progress and reform. Through Liberalism have been accomplished all the political changes of the past sixty years. It seeks to be fair to all creeds; it has extended political rights, first to the middle class and then to the laboring class. Authoritative Toryism favors protection in the interest of landlords, and attempts to encourage industry by bounties and privileges; Liberalism is identified with the system of free trade.

It will be seen that in this outgrowth of parties they are getting farther and farther away from the original Tory doctrine of the "divine right of kings." The *Radical* party was the outgrowth of popular discontent about 1819. The name has been used to denote Liberal politicians who are most in favor of large changes in the laws and methods of government. They hold that society needs improvement, and the chief hope of improvement lies in the development of popular government.

**Parties and Men of To-day.**—The Conservatives and Liberals of England to-day correspond so closely to the Tories and Whigs that preceded them that they are often called by the same names. The Conservative is pre-eminently the party of the aristocracy, always controlling a majority of the house of lords, while the Liberal prefers to be called the party of the people. The Conservative party has favored an aggressive foreign policy, while the Liberal is the peace party. Until recently both advocated the continued union of the parliament of Great Britain and Ireland, and both deplored the agitation and crimes in that country. When Mr. Gladstone brought forward his bill for home rule in Ireland there was a split in the Liberals, another party opposed to this measure being formed, called the Liberal-Unionists. This party, in parliament, votes with the Conservatives, and the distinctively Irish party—the Irish Nationalists—with the Liberals.

The most prominent member of the Conservative party is Lord Salisbury, whose political career dates from 1853, when he first entered parliament. He was secretary of state for India under Lord Derby and Mr. Disraeli (Lord Beaconsfield), and special ambassador to Turkey; also leader at the conference when the powers pressed on Turkey a proposal for a Turkish and international commission of supervision of the Balkan states,

which was rejected. He and Lord Beaconsfield represented Great Britain at the congress of Berlin. When Gladstone was premier he was the leading opponent of his home-rule and Egyptian policy. He became prime-minister in 1885, and after a short intermission again in 1886. A valuable member of his cabinet was Mr. Goschen, on account of his skill as a financier and his influence with the Liberal-Unionist faction. Lord Ashbourne's land-purchase scheme accomplished much toward lessening agrarian troubles in Ireland. Arthur Balfour, Lord Salisbury's nephew, became noted, as chief secretary for Ireland, for his rigid enforcement of the crimes act. Lord George Hamilton, as first lord of the admiralty, was the author of the scheme for the remodeling and enlargement of the navy. Lord Randolph Churchill, another Conservative, is noted for his violent speeches against the Liberals. He was chancellor of the exchequer under Lord Salisbury.

The most prominent British statesman of to-day is William Ewart Gladstone, known as the "Grand Old Man," who, in spite of his eighty-four years, has taken upon himself labors that would be considered onerous for a man thirty years younger. He entered parliament as a Conservative in 1832. The admirable revision of the tariff of 1842 was made by him. About ten years later he became a Liberal, and was chancellor of the exchequer under the Earl of Aberdeen and Lord Palmerston. He was made first lord of the treasury on the defeat of the Disraeli ministry in 1868. The prominent measures while he was in office were the Irish disestablishment act, the Alabama claims treaty with the United States, and the elementary education act. Parliament voted against him in 1874, and he was succeeded by Mr. Disraeli. He opposed the policy of the Conservatives resulting in the treaty of Berlin and the Anglo-Turkish convention. The Liberals won again in 1880, and Gladstone became premier. The prominent events of his ministry were the passage of the coercion and crimes bills for Ireland, the obstruction of Parnell in parliament, the struggle in Egypt ending at Tel-el-Kebir, and the fall of Gen. Gordon at Khartoum. Lord Salisbury and the Conservatives opposed his measure for the extension of the suffrage. In 1885 Gladstone was defeated on a vote on the budget, being succeeded by Lord Salisbury, but was returned to power by the success of the Liberals at the next general election. His home-rule bill being defeated he appealed to the country, and the election resulted in an overwhelming victory for the Conservatives and Liberal-Unionists. Then Salisbury became premier again. In 1890 Mr. Gladstone demanded that Mr. Parnell resign from the leadership of the Irish party. This caused a split; for a time their ranks were thrown into confusion, and it looked dark for home-rule. The situation has somewhat improved, and so great is Mr. Gladstone's popularity that he was returned to power in 1892. The prominent measures he proposes are the reform of the suffrage

and home-rule for Ireland. The latter bill is under discussion in parliament, and in spite of the strong protests of the Protestants of Ulster, will probably pass.

The Home-Rulers include Justin McCarthy (who was made leader of the Irish party on the retirement of Parnell), an able political writer, historian, and novelist; William O'Brien, editor of *United Ireland*—a "suspect" under secretary Forster's coercion act and a leader in the National League, who has several times been imprisoned for his speeches; John Dillon, who was the first member suspended from parliament in 1881 on the occasion of the suspension of the whole Parnellite party.

Joseph Chamberlain was for a long time identified with the Radical party. He was a member of Mr. Gladstone's cabinet of 1880, but when that statesman proposed home rule became a strong Unionist. Sir William Harcourt (Liberal) has been home secretary of state and chancellor of the exchequer under Gladstone. He is a prominent parliamentary debater. The marquis of Hartington has been lord of the admiralty, postmaster-general, secretary for war, secretary of state for India, and chief secretary for Ireland under Mr. Gladstone. He became leader of the Liberal party in 1875. In 1886 he refused to join Mr. Gladstone's home-rule cabinet, and turned Liberal-Unionist.

**The British Dominions.**—About one fourth of the land on the globe is included in the British possessions, and the population is about one sixth of the whole. The principal colonies and dependencies are as follows:

**European.**—Gibraltar, Malta, Channel or Norman isles, Man or Mona.

**Asiatic.**—Aden, a town in southeast Arabia; Perim and Mosha, islands at the entrance of the Red sea; Ceylon, Hindustan, and the provinces of Assam and Burmah; Hong Kong; Penang, province of Wellesley, Malacca, Singapore, and the Dindings (known as the strait settlements); Labuan, an island northwest of Borneo; Kuria Muria islands, off the southeast coast of Arabia; Kamaran island, in the Red sea; Keeling islands, in the Pacific ocean; Socotra, off Cape Guardafui; Cyprus.

**Oceanian.**—Australia, Tasmania, New Zealand, Fiji islands, Rotumah, Auckland, Lord Howe island, Starbuck, Fanning, Malden, Ellice, and Kermadec islands; also the southeastern part of New Guinea.

**African.**—(See Partition of Africa.)

**North American.**—Canada, Newfoundland, Bermudas, Honduras.

**South American.**—Trinidad, British Guiana, Falkland islands.

**West Indian.**—Jamaica, Windward and Leeward islands, Bahamas.

## Chapter XXX.

### GERMANY, ITALY, AUSTRIA-HUNGARY, MONACO.

**GERMAN EMPIRE.**—Next to Russia, this is the most extensive division of Europe, being about as large as the states of Oregon and Colorado combined. The coast line is small, but there are numerous navigable rivers, by which commerce is greatly aided. The principal parts are Hamburg, Bremen, and Lubeck, whose foreign commerce is rapidly increasing.

In the time of Cæsar, Germany was inhabited by numerous barbarous tribes, who offered a fierce resistance to his legions. The Frankish empire was established in the sixth century, and at the beginning of the ninth century Charlemagne ruled over a territory extending from the Atlantic to the headwaters of the Danube and the Po, and from the Ebro to the Elbe. On his death the empire was cut up into many petty duchies and principalities. The title of emperor of the Romans was held by different families until 1273, when Count Rudolph of Hapsburg (the ruling house of Austria) attained to kingly power. Under Charles V. the empire was greatly enlarged by the union of the crowns of Germany, Spain, Naples, and the Netherlands.

During the middle ages, Germany was the battlefield of Europe, and its boundaries were frequently changed. The empire was overrun by the armies of Napoleon, and when the Rhenish confederation was formed under the protection of France, it was finally dissolved. After Napoleon's fall a confederation of states was formed, which was alternately swayed by Austria and Prussia.

In 1848, in consequence of revolutionary movements, the governments of many of the German states were changed, and a national assembly sat for some time at Frankfurt, but without result. To effect a firmer reorganization, the emperor of Austria, Francis Joseph, presented in 1863, to the confederate princes assembled at Frankfurt, excluding Prussia, an act to reform the confederation. Prussia would not agree to this, except on terms of perfect equality with Austria. This being refused, Prussia tried to form a confederacy, excluding that powerful state. In the mean time, in 1866, Prussia had begun a war against Austria, and was so successful that at its close Austria renounced her federal connection with the German states. By treaty Austria

transferred to Prussia all rights acquired over the duchies of Holstein and Sleswick, while Prussia agreed to leave the territory of the king of Saxony intact. The kingdom of Hanover, Electoral Hesse, the duchy of Nassau, and the free city of Frankfurt, with portions of Bavaria and the grand duchy of Hesse, were annexed to the kingdom of Prussia.

Then, at the invitation of Prussia, all the states north of the Main entered into an alliance, under the name of the North German Confederation, whose first parliament met in Berlin in 1867. This parliament voted in 1871, at the instance of all the reigning princes of Germany, including the kings of Bavaria, Wurtemberg, and Saxony, a resolution by which the king of Prussia was made the head of the new confederation, under the title of German emperor. By the treaty of peace between France and Germany in the same year Alsace-Lorraine was ceded to Germany, and now forms a province of the German empire, being called "Reichland," or imperial realm, under the *reichstag* of Germany, and more immediately under the chancellor of the empire.

**Government.**—Under the new constitution the German empire consists of twenty-two monarchical and three republican states, not counting Alsace-Lorraine. The kingdom of *Prussia* is the largest and strongest state of the empire, and jealousy of its great power, felt by the smaller states, is a leading factor in German politics. The other kingdoms are *Bavaria*, next to Prussia in size and importance,—Otto, king; Prince Luitpold, regent; *Wurtemberg*, William II., king; and *Saxony*, Albert, king. Then there are six grand duchies, five duchies, seven principalities, and three free cities—Hamburg, Lubeck, and Bremen.

These German states are united in what is called a *bundesstaat*, or federative state, of which the central power consists of (1) the presidency, vested in the German emperor; the federal council (*bundesrath*), and the federal parliament (*reichstag*). The imperial succession is declared to belong to Prussia forever. The executive power is divided between the emperor, the chancellor, and the *bundesrath*. The chancellor is president of the *bundesrath*, and is declared responsible to the chamber for his acts, but no one except the emperor can demand his resignation.

In the division of powers between federal and state government there is a general resemblance to the government of the United States; also in the composition of the federal legislature, the *bundesrath* being appointed by the several states, and the *reichstag* elected by universal suffrage. In the German empire, however, no attempt is made to maintain the equality of the states by equal representation in the federal senate. Prussia has seventeen members of that body, Bavaria six, Wurtemberg and Saxony four each, several of the duchies two or three each, and the remainder of the states but one each.

The federal council combines the functions of a legislative assembly with those of an executive body. It consists of fifty-nine representatives of the states, who are supposed to act directly on the instructions of their respective governments. The delegates of each state cast their vote as a unit for or against a measure, whether it be a law or a treaty with a foreign power. The council also has judicial duties in cases of disputes between the states, with foreign powers, etc. There is also a federal chancery, an executive body under the direction of the chancellor, and an office of foreign affairs under Prussian management, supervised by a special committee appointed by Bavaria, Saxony, and Wurtemberg.



EMPEROR WILLIAM, OF GERMANY.

The reichstag has no power to force a change of ministry, like the British parliament. It can reject bills and refuse appropriations; it can also initiate legislation, but has no power to force the council to accept its bills.

**The Hohenzollern family**, from which the present dynasty of Prussia and Germany is descended, traces descent from Count Thassilo, a Suabian, who lived about the beginning of the ninth



century, and founded a castle near *Hechingen*, on the Zollern heights, whence his descendants derive their name. The present reigning dynasty of Prussia was founded in 1415.

The first emperor of the new German empire was William I., whose chancellor was Prince Bismarck, a strong, able man who held the reins of government with a firm and vigorous hand. On the death of William in March, 1888, he was succeeded by his son Frederick III. The latter was suffering at the time from an incurable disease, cancer of the throat, and died after a reign of only ninety-seven days. He was succeeded by his son, William II., the present ruler.

There is no doubt this young ruler thoroughly believes he is king by divine right, as he has said as much on different occasions, and that he means to exercise all the authority that is allowed him, which is considerable under the German constitution. One of the earliest events of his reign was a rupture with Bismarck and the resignation of the chancellor. In his place was appointed Gen. Georg Leo von Caprivi, who was born in 1831 and entered the army in his eighteenth year. He distinguished himself in the campaigns of 1864 and 1866, and also in the Franco-Prussian war. As head of the navy he showed great ability, and when William dismissed Bismarck he chose him as the one most capable of taking up the weighty responsibilities laid down by the "iron chancellor."

**Measures and Parties.**—Party feeling runs high in Germany, and there are no less than ten groups in the reichstag, representing as many political parties. The strongest is the Clerical party, which was headed until his death in 1891 by Dr. Windthorst. He succeeded in securing the repeal of the laws directed against the influence of the Roman Catholic church in politics. About 1888, the Conservatives under Herr von Puttkamer, and the National Liberals under Herr von Bennigsen, formed an alliance with the Imperialists, under Herbert von Bismarck, voting together on nearly all occasions in support of the ministry, the combination being known as "The Cartel." One feature of the election of 1890 was the defeat of these parties, and another was the great increase in strength of the Socialists. Then there are the German Liberals led by Eugene Richter, Professor Virchow, and others, the Poles, etc.

Several bills which the emperor has wished to see made laws have met with violent opposition. One of these was the compulsory education bill, for putting all schools under certain religious denominations. The emperor is inclined to accuse those who oppose his schemes with want of patriotism. A speech made by him during the heated discussion of this bill was followed by serious riots in Berlin. He is also evidently greatly annoyed by Bismarck's criticisms of his policy. The ex-chancellor does not like to see the high protective system, which he constructed with

so much care, overthrown, and says that it is their duty to build up a Protestant empire; that the emperor is wrong in attempting to gain his ends by the aid of the Clericals.

Lately the emperor has been engaged in a struggle to pass an army bill, providing for an increase of 60,000 privates and a corresponding number of officers and sub-officers. It would add 14,000,000 marks to the yearly expense, and bring into the army practically every adult male in Germany. On May 6, 1893, the bill was defeated in the reichstag, and the emperor immediately dissolved that body and ordered a new election. It is said that he still lacks votes enough in the new body to pass the bill, but it may go through in an amended form.

In the anxiety to get this through and make Germany, as it has been said, "an armed camp," Caprivi's liberal commercial policy may be endangered. The chancellor has been trying to build up what has been termed a "United States of Europe," that is, a combination of nations between which the tariff duties would be greatly reduced.\* This would include the nations belonging to the triple alliance (Germany, Austria, and Italy), Switzerland, and Belgium, and perhaps Bulgaria, Servia, and Roumania; also Holland and Spain. France, on account of her hostility, would be left out. The Agrarian league of Germany, however, favors protection, and in order to get the votes they control for the army bill this commercial scheme may have to be greatly modified.

**ITALY.**—The kingdom of Italy comprises the Italian peninsula and the islands of Sicily and Sardinia. The length of the peninsular coast is over 2000 miles. Elba, Ischia, Capri, Pantellaria, and the Lipari islands also belong to Italy. Throughout the whole of Italy, Italian, in very different dialects, is the language of the country.

After the fall of the Roman empire most of the country passed into the hands of the Goths. Charlemagne conquered Lombardy, and in the year 800 was crowned Roman emperor, while Rome itself passed under the control of the Pope. Northern Italy was afterward conquered by the German kings, while the southern portion was ruled by the Saracens and the Eastern empire until the rise of the Normans. Thenceforward the country was broken up into a number of small states. In the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries Naples, Florence, Milan, the States of the Church, and Venice had absorbed nearly the whole of the peninsula. During the eighteenth century Austria acquired large territories in the

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\* Since the above was written the army bill was passed by a small majority. Although the emperor has the men so much desired, he finds it difficult to secure the necessary money. The people are taxed now almost to the extent of their ability to pay. The advocates of peace are looking forward to the time when the military system of Europe shall be abolished, and the people relieved from its heavy burdens.

north. Later Napoleon overran Italy, dividing it into a number of republics, and afterward consolidating it into a kingdom. After his fall Italy was cut up into several small principalities. Then followed the revolution of 1848, during which the Austrians were driven out of Lombardy; but the king of Sardinia, who headed the popular movement, was defeated, and the rule of Austria was re-established. On the defeat of the Austrians in 1859 Sardinia obtained Lombardy, while Savoy and Nice were given to France,



**KING HUMBERT, OF ITALY.**

which it still holds. Garibaldi conquered the two Sicilies with his volunteers, and the result was that Victor Emmanuel, king of Sardinia, was proclaimed king of Italy. Austria held Venetia until 1866, when it was wrested from her by Prussians and Italians. Rome remained in the hands of the French until 1870. Their forces being withdrawn on account of the outbreak of the

Franco-Prussian war, the Italian troops entered the city in triumph, and it became the capital of united Italy.

Humbert, the present king, was born in 1844, and succeeded his father in 1878. He married, in 1868, his cousin Margherita, daughter of Ferdinand, duke of Genoa, and they have one child, Victor Emmanuel, prince of Naples, heir-apparent to the throne. The family is descended from the counts of Savoy, who flourished in the eleventh century. During Humbert's reign a protectorate has been secured over Abyssinia, education encouraged, and a navy created.

**Government.**—The constitution gives the executive power to the king, and the legislative power is shared by the king and parliament. The latter consists of a senate comprising princes of the royal house, and life senators appointed by the king, and the chamber of deputies elected by the people. The king administers the government through a ministry, subject to a majority vote of the chamber of deputies. Bills for the spending of money must originate in the lower house. The whole country is under one legislature, and each of its sixty-nine provinces is governed by a prefect appointed by the central government.

**Parties and Leaders.**—In the Italian chamber the majority and the bulk of the minority profess liberal principles, the one being known as the Ministerial Left and the other as the Opposition Left, or Pantarchists. Part of the opposition is made up of advanced Republicans or Socialists, and Moderates.

Signor Crispi became premier on the death of the famous premier Depretis in 1887. Crispi was an old Garibaldian and Republican, and a friend of France; but he became a devoted servant of the monarchy, and gave his most earnest thought to securing alliances with European nations, and to reinstating Italy as one of the "great powers." The maintaining of an army and navy made heavy taxes on land and imports necessary, business was depressed, the farmer impoverished, and great distress caused the laboring class. The debt increased until the treasury was bankrupt. In spite of the fact that late in 1890 the elections returned a majority for the government, the deficit in the budget early in the next year caused them trouble. This and a contemptuous reference made by Crispi to a previous ministry resulted in his overthrow.

He was succeeded by the marquis di Rudini, whose program was no increase in taxation, reduction of expenditure, no change in the foreign policy, and the triple alliance. Soon after Rudini took the office he had a diplomatic controversy with Mr. Blaine over the killing of some Italians by a mob in New Orleans. Although it was not definitely shown that any of these were Italian subjects, Rudini went so far as to break off diplomatic relations with the United States by recalling Baron Fava, the minister to Washington. This was undoubtedly a move to gain strength

with a political faction at home. The affair was finally settled satisfactorily, and the Italian minister returned to Washington.

The Italian government has had to cope lately with very serious labor troubles. Capriani, the leader of the anarchist faction, and others, were sentenced to imprisonment. Since the downfall of Crispi the relations between the government and the Vatican have been more friendly, and religious processions are now permitted in the streets. The Free Masons, however, under the lead of Signor Lemmi, have lately begun a vigorous movement against the Roman Catholic church.

**The Triple Alliance.**—This is a league of three great nations—Germany, Austria, and Italy—whose object is to keep the peace of Europe. If any one of the powers in the league is attacked, the others will aid in defending it. The first alliance was between Germany and Austria in 1879; Italy joined it afterwards. This treaty, which was for six years, was renewed in 1885 and again in 1891, when it was extended to 1898. Italy was brought into the alliance as a counterpoise to France, in case that country should form an alliance with Russia. It appears, however, that Russia wishes to be friendly with Germany.

Upon the fall of Crispi's ministry grave doubts were expressed in regard to that country renewing the compact (on account of the great expense of maintaining an army and navy), but this was set at rest when Premier Rudini declared his firm conviction that the triple alliance was necessary for the safety of Italy and the peace of Europe. It is said that Prince Bismarck, who originated the alliance, was opposed to its renewal.

MONACO is a principality on the Mediterranean, a few miles east of Nice, having an area of eight square miles and a population of 12,650. Fruit and pottery are exported, but the main revenue comes from a large gambling establishment. The state is really under French control. The present Prince is Albert, born in 1848 and acceded in 1889.

AUSTRIA-HUNGARY consists, for the most part, of the states which were united in 1868 under the rule of the house of Hapsburg. The total area is 268,000 square miles. This includes Bosnia, Novi-Bazar, and Herzegovina, which were placed under the rule of this empire by the treaty of Berlin in 1878, after the Turco-Russian war. The only seacoast is a short strip on the Adriatic.

The present Austrian empire originated in a margraviate created in the time of Charlemagne on the river Ems to defend the German empire against the Asiatic hordes. In 1156 the little state was raised to a duchy, which came into possession of the house of Hapsburg in 1282. The princes of that house extended their dominion, by marriage, purchase, and otherwise, over a number of other states, and from 1438 held almost uninterruptedly the throne of the German empire. The power and influence of Aus-

tria were greatly increased in 1526-7 by the acquisition of the crowns of Bohemia and Hungary. In the eighteenth century Austria became one of the great powers of Europe. Until 1806 its rulers bore the title of emperor of the Romans, but in that year Francis renounced the title and became the first emperor of Austria.

From 1806 to 1813 Austria was engaged in warring against Napoleon, and did much to check the career of that great soldier. The close of the reign of Francis I. was marked by insurrections



EMPEROR FRANCIS JOSEPH, OF AUSTRIA-HUNGARY.

in the Italian provinces, and it was with great difficulty that the confederation was maintained.

He was succeeded by his son, Ferdinand I., who promised constitutional reforms; but the aristocratic party prevented, in 1848, their being carried out by his abdication in favor of his nephew, Francis Joseph, the present emperor. The latter dissolved the national guard, took away the freedom of the press, and abolished the constitution approved by his uncle. In 1853 he nearly lost his life by assassination. Sardinia, which supported Napoleon III., having refused to disarm, Francis invaded that kingdom with a

large army in 1859, but was defeated at Magenta by the French and Sardinians, and later at Solferino. This war freed Lombardy from Austrian rule. In 1864 Francis Joseph coöperated with Prussia in the conquest of Sleswick-Holstein, but Prussia reaped the spoils in the annexation of those provinces. This led to a quarrel between Prussia and Austria, and the latter lost her supremacy in the German states by the defeat at Sadowa in 1866.

The Hungarians made these reverses the occasion of demanding a more liberal government. Up to 1848 Hungary and Transylvania had had a constitution limiting the monarchy, which was absolute for the rest of the empire. After the revolution of that year the local government these provinces had enjoyed disappeared, and the rule of the empire was reorganized in the most absolute form. In 1867 the present constitution was adopted.

**Government.**—The monarchy of Austria-Hungary now forms a bipartite state, consisting of a German or Cisleithian monarchy, and a Magyar or Transleithian kingdom ; that is, it comprises the empire of Austria on "this side" of the river Leith, and the kingdom of Hungary across the river. Each of the two countries has its own parliament, ministers, and government, while the connecting ties between them consist of the hereditary sovereign, a common army, navy, and diplomatic service, and the "delegations," a parliament of 120 members, half of whom represent the legislature of Austria and half that of Hungary. The sphere of the central government is limited to foreign affairs and war matters, and the financial business incident to these charges. The imperial office embraces the royal dignity of seven kingdoms, one grand duchy, four duchies, one principality, one sovereign earldom, and one margraviate. Hungary is not only granted self-government under the constitution, but an equal voice in diplomacy and war. The other provinces, though they are allowed provincial diets or legislatures, are subject to the reichsrath, or council of the empire.

The executive power rests with the crown, but the work of administration is carried on by local authorities. The delegations representing Hungary and Austria sit in separate chambers, and only convene for joint ballot when they do not reach the same conclusion separately. In the Austrian reichsrath the members of the upper house hold their seats by hereditary right, as the princes and nobles, or by appointment, as the bishops and life senators. The members of the lower house are elected for six years by popular suffrage, with a small property qualification. The emperor reserves the power of vetoing all legislation.

Hungary is governed by her king and diet, each possessing legislative power. The diet consists of a house of magnates, holding their seats by succession or appointment, and a house of representatives, elected triennially by the people under a taxpaying qualification. The executive power is exercised by a responsible ministry, consisting of a president and nine departments.

**Elements of Discord.**—It is a matter of grave doubt in many minds whether the empire will hold together after the death of Francis Joseph. The population embraces a greater number of races than any other country in Europe, with the exception of Russia. The Slavs, the most numerous race, are forty-two per cent of the whole; among these the Czechs number the most people. The Germans are twenty-five per cent of the population; the Magyars, or Hungarians proper, sixteen per cent; and the races speaking dialects derived from the language of ancient Rome, nine and one half per cent. Among so many different peoples there are many conflicting interests that tend to destroy the unity of the empire.

Much dissatisfaction is felt with the constitution of the empire, especially in Bohemia. This country has for neighbors Prussia, Saxony, and Bavaria. Its sides are enclosed by lofty mountains; it is about half as large as Kentucky, and contains 6,000,000 people. The Czechs of Bohemia do not forget that their country was once independent, and they are engaged in a strong struggle for self-government. The principal leader in this contest is Dr. Edward Grégr, an earnest patriot, a skilled parliamentarian, and an eloquent speaker. He is called the "tribune of the Bohemian nation." He asserts that there can be no liberty in a centralized Austria. The desire for "home rule" is stimulated by the spectacle of the wonderful prosperity of Hungary, which is already the granary, and bids fair to become the vineyard, of Central Europe. If home rule was granted to Bohemia, however, similar demands would be pressed by other sections; this would decentralize the executive power, and increase the difficulties of carrying out an imperial policy.

One source of anxiety is the race hatred existing between the Germans and Czechs in Bohemia. Early in 1890 a demand had been made that the emperor should be formally crowned king of Bohemia, and when Count Taaffe announced that no change was to be made in the constitution, nor was it intended that any coronation at Prague should take place, the friction between the two parties increased in violence. The Germans at one time refused to sit with the Czechs in the same diet. An agreement was made involving many concessions to the Germans. This displeased the young Czechs, and the quarrel then began again as ever. Since that time there have been occasional violent demonstrations between the factions.

In Hungary in the same year the prime-minister, Herr von Tisza, resigned rather than amend the naturalization laws of 1877, so as to revive Louis Kossuth's citizenship. He demanded that Kossuth should recognize the Hungarian constitution, and Francis Joseph as emperor. Tisza was succeeded by Count Szaparry.

**Statesmen.**—One of the most famous advisers of the emperor Count Kalnoky, minister of foreign affairs, who showed that he



possessed much diplomatic skill, both in the negotiations over the Bulgarian complication, and by effecting an alliance with Germany as a check to Russian aggression in the Danubian states. Count Edward Taaffe, minister of the interior, is of Irish descent. He has been of great assistance to the emperor in harmonizing the diverse elements of the empire. The most prominent figure in Hungary is Tisza, who is an ardent patriot, and while nominally supporting the foreign policy of the crown, has in more than one instance succeeded in shaping that policy in favor of Hungarian interests.

## Chapter XV.

### EUROPEAN REPUBLICS—FRANCE, SWITZERLAND. SAN MARINO, AND ANDORRA.

FRANCE.—The republic of France is the fourth in size among the countries of Europe, and commercially ranks next to Great Britain. It includes Corsica and numerous islands on the coast. The French belong to the Latin race, with a large mixture of Celtic blood. In Brittany the characteristics of the ancient Celts are maintained. The Basques in the Pyrenees still maintain their original language. Besides these there are many Italians, Spaniards, Flemings, etc.

The French monarchy was founded by Clovis in the sixth century. During the middle ages many of the nobles in different parts of the country had practically absolute power in their respective territories. For many years the English held parts of France, and the effort of the French to regain these territories constitutes one of the most interesting struggles of history. The most prosperous period of the monarchy began with Henry of Navarre and ended with Louis XIV. Then the immorality and tyranny of the upper classes brought about the bloody revolution of 1792, and the excesses of the revolutionists paved the way for the usurpation of Napoleon Bonaparte. He became emperor, and for a time master of the greater part of Europe, setting up kings and pulling down kings at his will. His fierce hatred of Great Britain led to the establishment of the Continental system, by which he forced the nations to close their ports against English trade. Several nations united against him, and he was finally overthrown at Waterloo.

The Bourbons were restored to the throne, but were again driven out in 1830. Then another branch of the family succeeded in the person of Louis Philippe. The people became dissatisfied with his rule in 1848 and drove him out, and he was obliged to flee to England. France's next experiment in government was a republic which lasted only three years. It was ended by a *coup-d'état* \* of Louis Napoleon, who became emperor as Napoleon III. During his reign France acquired the provinces of Nice and Savoy.

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\* A strategy (conspiracy, in fact) by which the government was usurped and Napoleon III. made the head of the nation.

France suffered a crushing defeat from Germany in 1870. The causes of the war were the restless vanity and the jealousy of the French people. Napoleon's aim in undertaking this war was to allay this discontent and to consolidate his government. The occasion for the war was the offer of the Spanish throne (then going a-begging) to a German prince. The strategy of Von Moltke, probably the greatest soldier since Napoleon I., brought victories at Metz, Sedan, Gravelotte, and other places for the German arms. In about six months after the declaration of war Paris had surrendered and the second empire had come to an end.

In addition to the humiliation of being conquered by a foreign foe, after the fall of Paris France suffered from a brief and terrible civil war. This was brought about by the Commune. The theory of the communist (or socialist) is that there should be an equal distribution of the means of life and enjoyment—that all should work for the community according to their capacity, and receive from the community according to their wants. He would apply the principles of coöperation and equality to labor, wealth, and government. Communism attracts to it idle, worthless, dissolute, and desperate men. Such men, designated as *Reds*, or *Red Republicans*,—enemies of law, order, and civilization,—have again and again, in the later history of France, brought odium on republicanism.

The *Red Republic* showed itself in hateful guise in the spring of 1871. Twice during the siege of Paris by the German forces the leaders of the Commune tried, without success, to depose the government of national defence, which had come into power in September, 1870. In March, 1871, they got control of Paris and hoisted the red flag in place of the tricolor of France. Their attempt to organize was a masterly piece of disorganization. They insisted on the absolute right of each commune to self-government in all matters of finance, taxation, magistracy, police, and education. As these ideas could lead to nothing but anarchy, the national assembly at Versailles could do nothing less than attempt to put down the Paris commune by main force. The Versaillesists, under Marshal MacMahon, besieged Paris, carrying one point after another. The communists, seeing that their cause was doomed, began a fierce riot of plunder, burning, and murder. By May 28 order was established in Paris, and the reign of law was restored under M. Thiers, president of the new French republic that had been established. He began at once to raise the one billion dollars that France was obliged to pay to Germany by the treaty of peace, and to clear the soil of France of her conquerors, who held certain districts and fortresses as security for the payment. The last German soldier left French territory in September, 1873.

France has recovered from this terrible war with wonderful rapidity on account of the industry, energy, and frugality of her people. The assembly declared in March, 1873, that Thiers had

deserved well of his country, and yet, with astounding fickleness, two months later they passed a vote that displaced him from power.

He was succeeded as president by Marshal MacMahon. Believing thoroughly in a republican form of government for France, as member of the senate Thiers continued his efforts in its behalf, and was in complete accord with the rising statesman M. Gambetta. In 1875 a constitution was adopted, the main features of which are given below.

**Government.**—The French republic is what is known as a unified state, that is, the national government is charged with the power and responsibility of supervising the administration of public affairs in all parts of the country. There are eighty-seven departments; these are subdivided into arrondissements, the arrondissements into cantons, and the cantons into communes. Practically the whole machinery of government is directed from Paris. The constitution gives the law-making power to the chamber of deputies and the senate, and the executive power to the president. Deputies are elected for four years by universal suffrage. The senate is composed of three hundred members, who are chosen by an electoral college composed of deputies, general councils, councils of districts, and delegates from the communes and cities of France. The president is chosen for seven years by a majority vote of the senate and chamber of deputies, united in the national assembly. There is no vice-president; when the president dies or resigns the assembly elects a new one—not for the unexpired term, but for seven years.

**Parties and Leaders.**—French politics is very complex, the parties being split up into numerous factions. They may be roughly divided into two groups—Republicans and Reactionaires. The latter are all united in common opposition to the republic and sit together in the assembly, forming the Right. They are divided into the Legitimists, those who wish to see the Bourbon family restored to the throne of France in the person of the Comte de Paris, and the Bonapartists, those who desire to place one of the Bonapartes on the throne. The Republicans are divided into Conservative-Republicans, Opportunists, and Radicals. The Opportunist party was formed by M. Gambetta. The name was given to them as a reproach because it was said they favored any policy the opportunity offered. The Radical party—the extreme Left—contains a great deal of the socialistic element. There is another group—the Irreconcilables—who wish even the republic abolished for a communistic form of government.

Marie F. Sadi Carnot, the president of the republic, was elected to that office on the forced resignation of Jules Grévy in 1887. He is distinguished as a military man and engineer, and besides has much literary ability. Attaining the presidency at a time when the republic was threatened by royalist and Boulangist fac-

tions, he has helped by his good sense and moderation to strengthen the government with the people. One of his most efficient assistants has been M. Constans, who as minister of the interior crushed the Boulangist conspiracy, held down the anarchists and revolutionary socialists, and inspired a respect for republicanism that had never been felt before.

Another able man is Charles Louis de Freycinet, who has held various cabinet positions. In 1882 his proposal for safe-guarding



PRES. CARNOT, OF FRANCE.

the Suez Canal was rejected, and England was left to pursue her policy in Egypt alone. René Goblet has been identified with the Republican Left. As minister of education in the cabinet of M. Brisson and the succeeding one he introduced many reforms. M. Clemenceau, a restless Radical leader, has been a member of a half-dozen cabinets.

Fears were felt for the stability of the republic when the Panama scandal was revealed, as many public men were charged with being connected with that great scheme by which the people were defrauded. The government quickly took up the prosecution of

the guilty parties, the chief ones being convicted, and the danger seems to be past. Cabinets have changed lately, however, with startling rapidity. The Ribot cabinet of January, 1893, gave way in April to one formed by Charles Dupuy. The aim of the latter is to give the country a safe business administration and to hold things together until the election of 1893. One hopeful sign for the Republic is that the Church has become reconciled to the government and the Pope has directed the bishops and archbishops to break off their alliances with royalists.

The relations with Germany are not what those of one nation should be with another, and there are those who believe that the danger of a war in Europe comes mainly from France. The people were deeply humiliated at the close of the war of 1870 at the loss of the provinces of Alsace and Lorraine, and there are doubtless many who would welcome another war with that country to wipe out the disgrace. Happily the business interests and good sense of the people are against war.

The danger of a reaction to monarchy seems to be growing less. The chief representative of the royal house is Louis Philippe Albert d'Orléans, Comte de Paris, a grandson of King Louis Philippe. He and his brother, the Duc de Chartres, served in the American civil war under General McClellan, and the Comte de Paris has written a "History of the American Civil War," and other works. In 1886 the government passed a bill forbidding the soil of France to the direct heirs of families that had reigned in France. The Comte de Paris immediately left for England. His son, however, returned to France, and was arrested and imprisoned.

**SWITZERLAND.**—This federal republic occupies the central and highest part of Europe, the land sloping in every direction to the surrounding seas. It is noted for its broken and mountainous surface, snow-capped peaks, great glaciers, and beautiful lakes.

Switzerland was early inhabited by tribes known as the Helvetians, that were thought to have been of Celtic origin. Then it became a province of the Roman empire; when that vast political system disappeared it was seized by the Alemanni and other Teutonic tribes. Later the western parts were included in the kingdom of Burgundy. During the Middle Ages the dukes of Austria of the house of Hapsburg tried to take possession of the cantons of Uri, Schwytz, and Unterwalden, in which they had estates. In 1291 these three cantons, which from the earliest times had stood together in their efforts to throw off the foreign yoke, formed a league, which in 1315 was established as a perpetual confederacy. Each canton pledged itself to assist the other cantons against all states that should molest them. During the period of resistance to foreign oppression the exploits of William Tell are said to have been performed. All know the story of the tyrant Gessler and the shooting of the apple by Tell from the head

of his son. Some have doubted that such a person as Tell ever existed, yet the Swiss treasure his memory, and the poet Schiller has made the story the subject of one of his most beautiful dramas.

It is at least true that the Swiss had a hard fight for their liberty, and their rugged country produced men who prized liberty and who *could* fight. Again and again the Austrians sent large armies against them, which were beaten back by small bodies of hardy Swiss. In 1315 men from Schwytz, Uri, and Unterwalden defeated the imperial army. Lucern joined the league in 1322, Zug and Glarus in 1352 and Bern in 1353. Eight cantons sent men against Duke Leopold III. of Austria in 1386 and defeated him at Sempach. It was in this battle that Arnold Winkelried gathered a bunch of Austrian spears to his breast and shouted, "Make way for liberty!" A gap was thus made in the enemy's line through which his countrymen poured over his dead body.

Several other cantons, including Fribourg, Aargau, Basel, Appenzell, and Schaffhausen, were added later. Ticino was obtained from Milan by treaty. The period of the Napoleonic wars was a trying one for Switzerland. That consciousness conqueror took upon himself the rôle of "protector," and converted Switzerland into the Helvetic republic. The Swiss protested vigorously against the change, but had to yield. Napoleon's rule ended in 1813, and a new confederation was formed the next year with twenty-two cantons, including Geneva, Neuchâtel, and Valais.

From that time until 1848 sedition, privy conspiracy, and rebellion on the part of the minority and arrogance and usurpation on the part of the stronger states marked the history of Switzerland. This culminated in 1843, when the Swiss diet refusing to compel Aargau to restore the convents she had suppressed, six Roman Catholic cantons formed a *sonderbund*, or offensive and defensive alliance, against the other members of the confederacy. This meant secession, and there was no way of dealing with it except by war, for which the Protestant cantons were not prepared. To make matters worse Valais joined the *sonderbund*. In 1847 the diet ordered the dissolution of the *sonderbund*, which was refused, and civil war ensued. The nationalists were victorious, and then proceeded to form a new and more perfect union, which they called a *bundes-staat* (federation). The constitution based on the laws then adopted came into force in 1874.

**Government.**—The Swiss republic is a true federation of states, with equal representation in the national senate, or state council, and with full rights of self-government. Each canton elects but two senators, even when, for purposes of self-government, they are divided. Representation in the lower house is apportioned on the basis of population. Then there is a federal council of seven members elected for three years, and from their number

each year are chosen a president and a vice-president. The federal council, including the president, perform the same duties as the president and cabinet of the United States. The president of Switzerland, however, has not near as much power as our president. He has no veto power and but small power of appointment, hence no horde of office-seekers hanging about him. His election as president elevates him somewhat above the other members of the council, but does not add much to his power. The president is Dr. Charles Emmanuel Schenck, whose term began Dec. 15, 1892.

Public men in Switzerland are patriotic, political corruption is rare, and once in office a man is usually kept there as long as he wants to remain. Many believe that the Swiss republic is the happiest experiment in government of the century. Notwithstanding the fact that three languages are spoken,—German, French, and Italian,—they are all recognized.

An interesting feature of the Swiss system is what is known as the "referendum." This is a provision for referring laws that have been passed by the national legislature to the people for their adoption or rejection. It furnishes a valuable means of checking the impetuous career of legislatures. It is safe to say that, had it been in force in the United States, some laws recently passed by Congress would not now be in force.

**Political Parties and Recent Events.**—The political parties in the Swiss assembly are the Radicals and Liberal-Conservatives, with some intervening shades of opinion. The leader of the Liberal-Conservatives is M. Bernard Hammer, a man of great ability and fine oratorical powers, while M. Ruchonnet is an advanced Radical. Lately Switzerland has been a resort for anarchists, nihilists, and political renegades generally, who use the country as a place where they can devise conspiracies against the various monarchical governments. This has called forth much protest, as it is considered a violation of the neutrality treaties that Switzerland has made with other nations.

In 1891 the Swiss celebrated the six hundredth anniversary of the first compact by the three cantons, and from which they date their independence.

**SAN MARINO.**—The republic of San Marino boasts of being the oldest in the world, having been founded in the year 441. The capital, San Marino, is built on a rugged mountain, inclosed on all sides by provinces of Italy, is reached by only one road, and is surrounded by fortified walls. The area is twenty-two square miles and the population about 8,000. The law-making body is a senate of sixty members elected for life, and there are two presidents elected every six months. The army has 950 men. The people engage in rural industry and silk manufactures.

**ANDORRA.**—This republic, with an area of only 150 square



miles and a population of about 12,000, is situated on the south slope of the Pyrenees, between France and Spain. The government is vested in twenty-four consuls, elected by the whole population. It is under the suzerainty of France and the Bishop of Urgel. The people are mainly engaged in mining.

## **Chapter V.**

### **SPAIN, PORTUGAL, BELGIUM, AND THE VATICAN.**

**SPAIN.**—The kingdom of Spain comprises the greater part of the Iberian peninsula, and includes also the Canary and Balearic isles. In extent of territory it ranks fifth among European states. It is more generally diversified by mountains than any other country of Europe. The Spanish dependencies at present consist of Cuba and Porto Rico, the Philippines, the Caroline islands, African possessions, and some small islands.

The country was early inhabited by Phœnicians, who planted colonies all along the coast. The Greeks gave the name Iberia to the eastern coast, which was afterward applied to the whole country. When the Roman power arose the name was changed to Hispania, whence the modern Spain. In the fifth century the Visigoths overran the country, and in the eighth the Moors conquered a portion of it, cultivating agriculture, commerce, science, and art.

The Christians rose against the Moors repeatedly, and before the end of the thirteenth century the Moorish kingdom was confined to Granada. After two more centuries of war the Moors were finally completely conquered by Ferdinand and Isabella. The kingdoms of Castile and Aragon were united by the marriage of their sovereigns, and all Christian Spain consolidated. This event and the occupation of a large portion of North, Central, and South America by Spanish generals raised the new kingdom to the first rank among the powers of the earth. Gold poured in from the New World, but continuous wars exhausted the treasury and led the way to the decline of the Spanish power.

Napoleon interfered in Spanish affairs, as he did in those of so many other countries. Having put his brother Joseph on the throne in place of Ferdinand VII., the Spaniards rebelled, and with the aid of Wellington drove the French out of the country. Ferdinand was recalled, but there were many insurrections against him. By a change in the law, allowing women to occupy the throne, Isabella, his daughter, became ruler instead of his brother, Don Carlos. The partisans of the latter resorted to endless intrigues to expel her, and she was obliged to relinquish the throne in 1868. Amadeus, son of king Victor Emanuel of

Italy, was declared king of Spain by the cortes, but the people's dislike for a foreign king caused him to abdicate in 1873.

A grandson of Don Carlos tried without success to secure the throne, and a republic was formed under Señor Castelar, but the Carlists kept the country in a continual turmoil. They were at last overcome by Alfonso, a son of Isabella, who had been crowned king under the title of Alfonso XII. In 1879, he married the Archduchess Marie Christina of Austria. He died Nov. 25, 1885, and May 17, 1886, his son, Alfonso XIII., was born and became a king



KING ALFONSO XIII., OF SPAIN.

on the very day of his birth. During his minority his mother acts as regent. The royal house of Spain is a branch of the Bourbon family. They derive their name from the castle seignory of Bourbon in the former province of Bourbonais in the center of France.

Although the Spanish government manages to get along more smoothly than it did a few years ago, it still has troubles occasionally that make the monarchists tremble for the safety of the throne. In 1881 insurrections were started by the republicans, which the government managed to suppress. Señor Castelar, chief of the moderate Republicans, and even Zorrilla, the Radical,

disapproved of this outbreak. In the same year the government had to cope with the conspiracies of anarchists, who were incited by foreign socialists. Some of them were captured and executed; in spite of their threats of vengeance the uprising was effectually suppressed. Another trouble of the government is the lack of money. Each year there is a deficit in the finances, and methods of taxation have been resorted to that have caused much discontent.

In 1892 there was a series of splendid celebrations in honor of the four hundredth anniversary of the discovery of America, and Spain's part in that event. During the Columbian Exposition the duke of Veragua visited the United States as a representative of the descendants of Columbus, and later the Infanta Eulalia, aunt of the king, came as a representative of the Spanish royal family.

**Government.**—Spain is a constitutional monarchy, the executive power vesting in the king and the law-making power “in the cortes with the king.” The cortes is composed of a senate and congress, equal in authority. A portion of the senators hold office by hereditary right, others by appointment of the crown, and others by election. The members of the lower house are elected by the people every five years. The ministers are responsible to the cortes. The king's veto is absolute.

**Parties and Statesmen.**—The most prominent public man in Spain to-day is Praxedes Mateo Sagasta, who is counted as a Liberal, but he seems to be able to adjust his policy so as to satisfy those of all shades of opinion. He held office under Gen. Prim, the revolutionary director of 1868; under Serrano, regent of Spain in 1869; under Amadeus, king in 1870, and under Alfonso XII. till his death. The queen-regent has always regarded him as the mainstay of the throne. In 1890 he gave his support to the universal suffrage bill, which was adopted. The opposition of the Conservatives on account of this measure and the demand for protection (Sagasta is a pronounced free trader) caused him to resign.

A new cabinet was formed by Señor Canovas del Castillo, Conservative leader. Canovas has been in public life since 1851, and as head of the cabinet alternated with Sagasta several times. He drew up the law for the abolition of the traffic in slaves, and hoisted the standard in favor of legitimate and constitutional monarchy in 1868 in the face of the triumphant revolution.

The leader of the extreme Republicans is Manuel Ruez Zorrilla. He was the right-hand man of Amadeus, and when that king abdicated Zorrilla went to Portugal with him. Since then his position has changed decidedly, and he is supposed to be the instigator of every republican conspiracy that disturbs the peace of Spain. He lives in England, France, or Switzerland, according to the needs of the moment, and his intrigues are a source of anxiety to every Spanish government.

**PORTUGAL.**—This kingdom occupies the western portion of the Iberian peninsula, being 260 miles long and having an average breadth of 100 miles. With the Azore and Madeira islands it is nearly three fourths as large as the state of New York.

Portugal was anciently inhabited by Celtic tribes. Phœnicians, Carthagenians, and Greeks formed colonies along its shores. From 200 B. C. to the end of the fourth century it was governed by the Romans; then it was overrun by Visigoths, Vandals, and other Northern barbarians. From the eighth to the close of the eleventh century it was held by the Moors, and on their expulsion the kingdom was established.

It consisted originally of a much smaller territory between the rivers Douro and Minho, granted as a county to Count Henry, about 1095 by his father-in-law, Alfonso, king of Castile and Leon. At the mouth of the Douro, on the left bank, was a city called Cale. The majority of the inhabitants afterwards removed to the right bank, where there is a good harbor; and thus arose Porto Cale, called afterwards Oporto, the harbor. Porto Cale gave its name to the kingdom of Portugal, of which it was at one time the chief town. Portions of territory were added from time to time until the kingdom attained its present size.

The most brilliant period in the history of Portugal was in the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries, when it obtained a foremost place among European nations, on account of scientific knowledge, enterprise, and wealth. In the early part of the fifteenth century Prince Henry the Navigator started the nation on this career of prosperity by his zeal in the study of geography, astronomy, and navigation. Then followed the splendid achievements of Diaz, da Gama, and others. For fifty years Lisbon was the commercial center of the world, as London is now.

Then the government fell into bad hands, and in 1580 Portugal passed under the control of Philip II. of Spain. During the wars of the Netherlands it lost its commerce and most of its colonies. It conquered its independence in 1640, when a revolt against Spanish rule occurred, and the dynasty of Braganza was placed on the throne. The close alliance with England involved Portugal in the Napoleonic wars, and in 1807 the royal family was obliged to leave the country, going to Brazil. The Braganzas were restored to the throne through the influence of England, and still occupy it. The family takes its name from the city of Braganza in the province of Trans-os-Montes, the ancient ancestral seat of the dukes of the house.

Under the reign of Dom Luis, which began in 1861, the work was started of restoring Portugal to some of her ancient grandeur. He fostered education and encouraged the building of railroads. Dom Luis died in 1889 and was succeeded by his son, Dom Carlos I. (Charles), who though a very young man gives evidence of possessing much of the wisdom and prudence of his father. The

new king on ascending the throne, promised to promote the welfare of the country by conforming strictly to its institutions. He confirmed the ministry that held office under his father, and the election that followed shortly after gave a strong majority in their favor.



KING CARLOS (CHARLES), OF PORTUGAL.

**The Dispute with England.**—Then followed the dispute with England over territory in Africa. In 1890 Major Serpa Pinto raised the Portuguese flag in Mashonaland, and took the British flag away from the natives. Great Britain asked Portugal to give up this land, as it was claimed by English corporations, threatening to break off all relations if the demand was refused. The ministry felt compelled to obey, and, knowing that they could not hold out on account of the strong feeling against them, immediately after resigned. This cabinet had at its head Señor de Castro, a gifted, upright man. A ministry, formed by Señor Serpa Pimental, controlled affairs with more or less difficulty until the following September, when it was also thrown out. Then Gen. Chrysostomo D'Abreu-Sousa, who declared that he did not

represent any party but the best interests of the country, became the head of the cabinet, and favored such legislation as would relieve the financial embarrassment and settle the difficulty with Great Britain. At last it was agreed that the Zambesi and Shire rivers should be open to the free navigation of all nations, Great Britain promising not to make any treaties with native chiefs in Portuguese territory. The lowlands were assigned to Portugal, the highlands to Great Britain. Most of the territory assigned to Portugal is north of the Zambesi. As Portugal is a heavy debtor to England and a large purchaser of her manufactured goods, this settlement tended to benefit her greatly.

Unfortunately, however, another dispute broke out in Africa. A British party were proceeding up the Pungwé River to Mashonaland in April, 1891, to prospect for gold, when they were fired upon by the Portuguese, and forced to surrender. After this incident Great Britain demanded and obtained the free navigation of the Pungwé. This trouble brought another cabinet crisis; all the members resigned, but through the influence of the king the premier was induced to remain and form another cabinet.

Early in 1892 Senor Oliveira Martins, minister of finance, frankly confessed that the country could no longer pay its creditors; and, after the manner of ordinary bankrupts, he proposed a compromise with the creditors. The deficit then was about \$25,000,000. The scheme to tax large salaries, the income on bonds, etc., was adopted.

**Government.**—The present constitution of Portugal was framed in 1836. It recognizes four powers in the state—legislative, judicial, executive, and moderating, the last two being vested in the sovereign. Executive responsibility, however, rests with the ministry, which retains its power subject to the will of the lower house of parliament. There are two houses in the parliament—the house of peers, consisting of hereditary members and others appointed by the sovereign, and the chamber of deputies elected by the people.

**BELGIUM.**—In point of area Belgium ranks sixteenth among the countries of Europe, but in population it is the eighth. It is about one and a half times as large as the state of New Jersey, and lies between France, Germany, the Netherlands, and the North Sea. In places the country is very low, so that dikes are required to protect it from the sea.

The country now bearing the name of Belgium once formed a part of what was known under the general term of the Netherlands, ruled successively by the dukes of Burgundy, the house of Austria, and the crown of Spain. In 1598 Philip of Spain formed the southern part of the Netherlands, or Belgium, into an independent kingdom, and placed his daughter Isabella on the throne. In the peace of Utrecht, in 1713, the country was assigned to

Austria, but succeeded in gaining its independence in 1790. As an independent state it was known as United Belgium, and had a congress to manage its affairs. Next it was conquered by Austria, but a few years later Napoleon placed it under French rule. After the fall of Napoleon in 1815 it was united with Holland, under Prince William Frederick of Nassau, who took the title of king of the Netherlands. The union was not a satisfactory one. The Hollanders looked upon Belgium as a conquered country, at whose expense they might enrich themselves. Representation in the governing body was unequal, and the Hollanders took the bulk of the offices.

The French revolution of 1830 gave the Belgians the opportunity they had been looking for to rebel. Serious riots occurred in Brussels and other cities, and many public and private buildings were destroyed. These acts were followed by negotiations for a settlement of the difficulties and a separation of the states; but the government being slow in granting the demand of the populace, open hostilities ensued. The settlement of the trouble was finally left to a convention in London, representing five great powers. This convention decided to dissolve the kingdom of the Netherlands.

In January, 1831, a national congress elected a king, who was not acceptable, and finally Prince Leopold, of Saxe-Coburg, an uncle of Queen Victoria, was elected king and accepted. He ascended the throne in July of that year. The new kingdom started in by declaring freedom of education, of the press, of religious worship, etc. King Leopold I. married a daughter of King Louis Philippe of France. His son, the present king, who is known as Leopold II., was born in 1835, and succeeded to the throne on the death of his father in 1865. He early became noted for the part he took in the discussions in the Belgian senate, especially those relating to the establishment of maritime relations between Antwerp and the Levant.

Leopold took a lively interest in the Brussels African International Association. He induced Henry M. Stanley to undertake an expedition to develop the great basin of the Congo River under the auspices of the association, and gave \$250,000 a year from his private purse to help along the enterprise. Stanley established trading-stations along the Congo River from its mouth to Stanley Pool, a distance of 1400 miles, and founded the Congo State also, of which Leopold became sovereign in 1885.

**Government.**—The constitution of 1831 made Belgium "a constitutional, representative, and hereditary monarchy." The royal succession is in the direct male line in the order of primogeniture. The king is invested with a degree of legislative power, as well as with full executive and veto powers; but his acts must be countersigned by ministers who are responsible to the parliament. The senate and chamber of deputies, of which the parliament



consists, are both elected directly by the people, the former for eight and the latter for four years. The representatives and senators are apportioned according to population. The house introduces and votes first on all financial measures; all proceedings of the senate while the house is not sitting are illegal. Half of the deputies are elected every two years, and half of the senators every four years. The king has power to dissolve the houses



**KING LEOPOLD II., OF BELGIUM.**

at any time, either simultaneously or separately, and in such a case an election for a full house must occur within two months.

**Parties, Men, and Measures.**—The two principal parties in Belgium are the Clericals and Liberals. There are also two minor groups, Protestants and Socialists, both of which usually vote with the Liberals and always against the Clericals. The Clericals are with the state church—the Catholic. Although in an overwhelming majority, they are disposed to use their power moderately and for the good of the whole people. The premier, M. Bernaert, who is also the minister of finance, is a man of great ability and a brilliant orator. Among other members of the cabinet are M. Léjeune, minister of justice, an able lawyer, and Prince de Chimay, minister of foreign affairs, one of the most distinguished diplomats in Europe.

One of the most important of recent questions has been in regard to the suffrage. The law was so formed that a large part of the people, especially the workingmen, were prevented from voting. No bill can be brought before the chamber except through the cabinet, and in spite of the strong demand for universal suffrage the premier refused to bring in such a bill. The pressure was so great, however, that in 1890 he consented to the presentation of a bill by a Radical. The resistance to removing the educational and property qualifications that restricted the voters to about 100,000 resulted in serious riots among the workingmen all over the kingdom. The parliament saw that unless it took action there would be a revolution, and on April 18, 1892, the suffrage measure passed the lower house by a unanimous vote. It gives the ballot to every male citizen above the age of twenty-five years, allowing two votes to heads of families and members of other classes possessing specified qualifications. This act adds more than one million to the number of voters. The surrender of the government to the physical force of the mob produced a profound impression throughout Europe.

THE VATICAN.—Up to 1870 the Pope was sovereign of the States of the Church. In that year these were forcibly annexed to the Italian kingdom,—an act which the Church has never condoned. Although deprived of temporal power, the Pope is considered as possessed of his former dignities as a reigning prince, and maintains diplomatic relations with most of the European states. He is elected for life by a college of cardinals. The present Pope is Leo XIII., elected Feb. 21, 1878. He is the son of Luigi Pecci, and was born in 1810. His place of residence in Rome is called the Vatican.

## **Chapter VX.**

### **NETHERLANDS, DENMARK, SWEDEN AND NORWAY.**

**THE NETHERLANDS.**—The chief feature of this country is that it is a very low plain, most of it lying below the level of the sea, from which it is partly protected by natural sand-hills and partly by dikes and embankments. It is nearly half as large as the state of Tennessee, and is divided into eleven provinces. The grand duchy of Luxemburg on the southeast border of Belgium, though governed by the ruler of the Netherlands, has a separate administration.

In the middle ages the Netherlands was divided into several dukedoms. The duke of Burgundy became master of almost the entire country in 1437. At that time, however, there were several rich and prosperous cities, as Antwerp, Ghent, and Bruges, that enjoyed a large degree of freedom. After the Reformation, Protestantism obtained a strong hold, and the attempt of Philip II. of Spain to crush it out failed. In this struggle Prince William of Orange, the head of the federal republic that was formed, made alliances with neighboring powers against Spain, but in 1584 was assassinated. Prince Maurice, his son, then carried on the war with great success. The independence of the Netherlands was acknowledged in 1648. The Dutch during this period began their assaults on the East Indian islands, and gained a footing there, while they also settled New Amsterdam (now New York) and conquered a portion of Brazil. After the close of the war with Spain, war was begun with England, and it was at this time that Admiral Van Tromp sailed the British waters with his navy and a broom lashed to the masthead, symbolical of his determination to sweep the seas. Soon after 1653 peace was established, and in the following year the Dutch were expelled from Brazil. Since the separation of Belgium from the Netherlands the latter kingdom has had a peaceful and flourishing existence, and has made rapid strides in prosperity and wealth. The only wars have been occasional conflicts on some of the East Indian islands.

The present kingdom dates from 1816, when the Prince of Orange was elevated to the rank of king of the Netherlands. Wilhelmina, born Aug. 31, 1880, became queen on the death of

her father, William III., about three years ago. During her minority Queen Emma, her mother, acts as regent.

**Government.**—The kingdom of the Netherlands is a hereditary constitutional monarchy. The executive power is vested wholly in the sovereign, who shares also the work of legislation with the states-general. This consists of two chambers, whose members assemble at the Hague, the capital of the kingdom. The members of the upper chambers are elected by the wealthy citizens; the



QUEEN WILHELMINA, OF THE NETHERLANDS.

others are chosen by the vote of all the citizens, there being a small property qualification. The government is strong, and the administration of every department simple and economical.

**Parties and Leaders.**—The two political parties in the states-general are the Liberals and Anti-Liberals. The latter being united in conservative bias, rather than any definite policy, includes such opposite religious elements as the Catholics and Orthodox Protestants. In 1888 an election took place under the amended constitution, and the Liberal majority in the previous chamber was overthrown and a ministry formed with Baron MacKay as premier; Ruys van Beerenbroeck, minister of justice,

and Jonkheer C. Hartsen, minister of foreign affairs. The latter is a diplomat of years and experience. In 1891 the Liberals were successful in the election, and the MacKay cabinet had to give way to one headed by Tak Van Poorvliet. The other members are men of eminence and extensive experience in their various departments. By the accession of the Liberal party to power Holland, for the first time in her history, seems likely to become involved in that system which has had so noted an effect on the industrial and economic development of Germany, Austria, Spain, France, and Russia,—viz., compulsory military service. The carrying out of the system seems, to the eyes of many, an indication that the kingdom is destined ultimately to be absorbed by the German confederation.

A great work has lately been begun, which is no less than the attempt to reclaim the land now covered by the Zuyder-Zee. This body of water is almost inclosed by islands. The plan is to close the passages between the islands and then pump the water out of the basin thus shut in. Fully 750,000 acres of land will thus be reclaimed. It will increase the land area of the kingdom over ten per cent, will materially modify the climate of the surrounding provinces, and will make great changes in the industrial and commercial relations of the Hollanders.

**Colonies.**—The Dutch have for centuries been prominent in the work of colonization. Their principal colonial possessions are Java, Madeira, Sumatra, Riouw, Banca, Billiton, South Borneo, the Moluccas, part of New Guinea, part of Timor, Bali, etc., all in the Eastern hemisphere; Dutch Guiana in South America, and the islands of Curacao, Bonair, Aruba, St. Martin, St. Eustace, and Saba in the West Indies.

**DENMARK.**—The kingdom of Denmark occupies the upper portion of the peninsula of Jutland, and also includes Zealand, Funen, Laaland, Bornholm, Falster, Langeland, and other adjoining islands. The west coast is very low and sandy, with numerous lagoons; but on the eastern side there are many good harbors, especially among the islands.

The first definitely known of the Danes was when they crossed the North Sea and invaded England. In the early part of the thirteenth century they conquered the northern part of Germany, and for some time their commercial power in the Baltic was supreme. By intermarriage of their royal families Sweden, Norway, and Denmark were united under one government in 1397, and remained so until 1523, when an insurrection in Sweden caused the separation of the two crowns. After 1660 Denmark became an absolute monarchy, with right of succession. From that time down to 1848 its history is almost wholly one of deeds of arms, either offensive operations or alliances that would aid in warding off attempts to appropriate portions of the kingdom.

Denmark's power has been cut down greatly during the present

century. The first loss was that of Norway ; then in 1848 Holstein rebelled, and Prussia sent armies to aid that province. The insurrection was ended, however, in 1850, by a peace in which Prussia abandoned Holstein and Sleswick to their fate, and soon after aided in their subjection. The duchies were returned to Danish sway.

The new constitution adopted by Denmark giving civil liberty and universal suffrage found no favor with the German residents of Holstein, and the king restored absolute monarchy for



KING CHRISTIAN IX., OF DENMARK.

Holstein and Lauenburg. In 1863 a new fundamental law was declared for Denmark and Sleswick. This appropriation of the duchy did not please Prussia, and that power, assisted by Austria, made war on the Danes. By the peace of 1864 Sleswick and Holstein were separated from the Danish possessions. Prussia got them both, and although the treaty called for the restoration of the northern part of Sleswick, inhabited by Danes, no heed was ever paid to this part of the agreement.

Christian IX., the present king of Denmark, was made heir to the throne by virtue of a London decree of 1851, conferring the right

of succession, after the extinction of the house of Oldenburg, to the house of Glücksburg. He was born in 1818, and became king on the death of his kinsman, Frederick VII., in 1863. His queen is the Princess Louisa of Hesse-Cassel. In spite of the Sleswick-Holstein disaster, which greatly lessened Denmark's influence in Europe, Christian has been very successful in forming family alliances; in fact, he has been humorously called "the most successful father-in-law in Europe." His daughter, the Princess Alexandra, was married to the Prince of Wales in 1863, and another daughter, Princess Marie Sophie, became the wife of Alexander III. of Russia in 1866. His son George was made king of Greece in 1863.

**Government.**—The Danish constitution vests the executive power in the king and his responsible ministers, and the right of making laws in the rigsdag, or diet. The rigsdag consists of a landthing, or senate, and a folkthing, or house of commons. Of the sixty-six senators twelve are nominated for life by the crown, and the rest chosen for a term of eight years by electoral bodies. The folkthing has 102 members, elected directly by universal suffrage for a term of three years. The local government is administered as in France, partly by appointees of the crown, and partly by representatives of the people.

**A Peculiar Contest.**—In Denmark a contest has occurred between the king and the popular assembly that would not have taken place under any other constitutional government in Europe. In 1875, the prime minister, M. Estrup, was appointed, and has remained in power in spite of repeated defeats in the folkthing, and the absolute refusal on the part of that body to vote any financial measure. This has not proved effective in changing the ministry, since under the Danish constitution the king is empowered to promulgate provisional financial laws whenever in his judgment an emergency requires it. Under these circumstances there could be but two parties—the Ministerialists and the Anti-Ministerialists. Outside of Copenhagen, the former party has very few adherents. M. Estrup's war minister, Col. Bahnson, has made himself famous by the construction, in spite of repeated protests of the folkthing, of an extended system of fortifications around Copenhagen. The folkthing regards these fortifications as unnecessary and unwise; still the work is carried on and paid for under the king's provisional financial laws.

**Iceland and other Dependencies.**—The people of Iceland have long been dissatisfied with their relations with the mother country, and many of them have sought homes in the Canadian province of Manitoba during the past few years. Though enjoying greater political privileges than ever before, their demand for self-government has not been heeded. The commercial treaty with Spain, by which Spanish goods were to be given advantage of entry into the island, was thrown out in the Danish rigsdag, by way

of retaliation. The result is that codfish, the staple export of Iceland, is practically excluded from the Spanish market, and those islanders who earn their living by fishing yearly suffer great loss. Besides most of the trade of the island is carried on with Danish capital, for which excessive interest is charged.

The principal other Danish dependencies are the Faroe islands, Greenland and Santa Cruz, St. Thomas and St. John in the West Indies.

**Sweden and Norway.**—These two countries constitute what is known as a bipartite kingdom; that is, they have separate local governments, yet are united under one ruler. Sweden has about 1400 miles of coast-line, which is deeply indented with bays and gulfs. Among the islands are Oeland and Gotthand. The coast of Norway is also plentifully furnished with bays, or fiords, which are in many cases so blocked with islands that navigation is rendered dangerous. The islands along the coast have an area of 8500 square miles. These northern people have always been hardy navigators, and still maintain a prominent place among the seafaring nations of the world.

The union of Norway and Sweden dates from the time when Napoleon Bonaparte was meddling with the affairs of nearly every nation in Europe. The "Little Corporal," as Napoleon was called, in 1810 had one of his marshals, Bernadotte, elected heir-apparent to the crown of Sweden, the throne then being vacant. Bernadotte afterwards deserted Napoleon, and, for his treachery, England and Russia rewarded him in 1814 by compelling Denmark to cede Norway to Sweden. The Norwegians protested against being disposed of in this way, and the result was that Norway did not become a province of Sweden, but an independent kingdom, having a separate government under a liberal constitution.

Oscar II., the present ruler, is the grandson of Marshal Bernadotte. He was born January 21, 1829, and succeeded his brother, Charles XV., Sept. 18, 1872. In 1857 he married the princess Sophia, of Nassau, and they have four sons, the eldest of whom is the prince royal, Gustavus, born in 1858.

**Government.**—The two states are united only in the person of their sovereign; they have a common diplomatic service. There is a council of state representing both countries, but it is a committee of conference to adjust matters relating to the common welfare.

The Norwegians have always resisted all attempts to consolidate the two monarchies. No Swede can hold office in Norway, and no Norwegian in Sweden. The government of Norway, in its executive branch, is carried on through a responsible ministry consisting of Norwegians only, a division of which is resident in Stockholm, so as to be in immediate contact with the king. The Norwegians have made a demand for a separate consular service, which, if granted, is sure to be followed by a demand for a separate



diplomatic service, and a Norwegian minister of foreign affairs. The Steen ministry, which lately resigned on account of the king's refusal to sanction the law granting separate consuls, represents in its extreme form this striving of the Norwegians for an absolute and unqualified equality with Sweden under the union. It is complained that in the sight of the world Norway is completely ignored, giving the idea that she is a mere province; also that a Norwegian can secure promotion in the government service only by



KING OSCAR II., OF SWEDEN AND NORWAY.

ignoring the claims of his country. The Norwegians claim that the present situation means national extinction. It may be because Mr. Stang, the head of the new cabinet, sees this that he is said to have advised the king to approve of the consular law of the late shorthing, which, however, as minister he is not bound to urge.

The strength of the feeling in Norway was shown by the shorthing cutting off the king's civil list, and immediately pensioning the retiring ministry. On the other hand, there was a demand from the Swedish press to suspend the Norwegian constitution, which is but another way of declaring war, or forcing Norway

into declaring war. If war should come, the chances favor Norway's losing whatever independence she possesses, because the army could not be depended upon, the officers having sworn allegiance to King Oscar. At the same time, that the Swedish government is determined to support the king in his unconciliatory attitude is shown by the debates in both chambers of the riksdag; but there is a democratic sentiment even in Sweden in favor of Norway's complete equality under the union. Time alone will determine whether the stubbornness of the king in refusing this demand can be overcome.

## Chapter VXX.

### *RUSSIA AND TURKEY.*

**RUSSIA.**—The Russian dominions comprise Russia proper, the kingdom of Poland, and the grand duchy of Finland in Europe, and in Asia the Caucasus, the Trans-Caspian district, Central Asia, and Siberia. In this great region is included about one sixth of the land on the globe, stretching from Bering sea to the Baltic, and from the Arctic circle to the Blacksea and the Balkan countries in Europe, and to Persia, Afghanistan, and China in Asia. There is nowhere else in the world an unbroken country of such vast extent under one government. Russia in Europe includes about one half of the continent and one third of the empire. It is a great plain watered by numerous rivers and partly shut in by the Ural, Caucasus, and other mountains.

The winds from Siberia sweep over European Russia, making it intensely cold. Even in the Crimea the mean temperature in winter is below the freezing-point, while in the region between Moscow and Archangel the thermometer often registers from twenty to thirty below zero. In the czar's dominions are about 110,000,000 people of one hundred different nationalities and speaking forty different languages. The great body of the people are of Slavonic origin. A large part of the peasantry are miserably poor, their methods of agriculture being rude and unproductive.

The principal islands belonging to Russia are the Aland group, at the entrance to the gulf of Bothnia; Dago and Osel, in the gulf of Riga; Solvetski, in the White sea; and Kolguev and Waigatz, in the Arctic ocean. The great and unexplored islands of Nova Zembla also belong to Russia.

**Origin of the Empire.**—European Russia was anciently inhabited by barbarous tribes called by the Greeks and Romans Scythians and Sarmatians. Early in the Christian era, Goths, Huns, and other warlike people either drove these out or absorbed them. Among the invaders were the Slavs, who pushed the Finnish tribes to the far north and became the founders of the Russian nation. The country was long divided into independent provinces; it therefore fell a prey to fierce invaders from the east in the twelfth century, and for ninety years paid tribute to the Tartars. Ivan III. broke their power and united the provinces under one government.

Peter the Great did much to civilize and strengthen the nation. Under each succeeding czar the boundaries have been extended eastward and southward. All the annexed territory has been retained; Russia never gives anything up. In Europe she has attained her great aim, the control of the Black sea, and now casts longing eyes on Constantinople. Religious feeling as well as political ambition prompts her to wish to occupy that city. The Russians look upon their empire as the successor of the Eastern Roman empire and the defender of the Greek form of Christianity, and hence they wish to drive the infidel Turk out of that capital. Russia is restrained, however, by the other nations of Europe, who are fearful and jealous of her great power.

**Government.**—Russia is a patriarchal despotism. The whole legislative, executive, and judicial power is united in the emperor, whose will alone is law. The crown is held by right of primogeniture, with preference of male over female heirs, subject to the rule that the royal family must belong to the Greek Church.

The czar is assisted in the administration of the government by a cabinet of four ministers, and under these by four separate boards or councils. The first, the council of the empire, advises the emperor with regard to legislation, civil administration, and finance; the second, the directing senate, forms the supreme court of appeal, subject, of course, to the approval of the emperor; the third, the holy synod, superintends the religious affairs of the empire, while the fourth, the council of ministers, comprises the heads of the executive departments.

It has always been the custom of the government to allow the annexed countries to retain such laws as did not conflict with the autocracy. The empire is divided into provinces, and the provinces into districts. Their governors are advised by boards elected by the people. These boards can neither make laws nor administer them, but have some influence, as they can petition the czar against the acts of the governors.

Finland is under a somewhat different rule from the other provinces. Part of the country was obtained from Sweden by treaty in 1721 by Peter the Great, and the remainder was conquered, from the Swedes in 1809. The ancient constitution is preserved, and the government on the whole is exceedingly liberal. A governor-general, representing the emperor, resides at Helsingfors, the capital. The Russian authorities favor the Finnish or popular party, rather than the Swedish or aristocratic element.

It is hard for us, living under free institutions, to appreciate the full power of the czar. He can and does suppress newspapers and books; he stifles free speech; he expels certain subjects and he forbids others to leave the country; on the slightest pretext he may consign his subjects to the horrors of Siberian prison life. All the officers of the church are appointed by him; he is the head

of the army, which in time of peace numbers about a million men and may be increased to three million in case of war.

**The Czar.**—The present emperor, Alexander III. (or czar) is a member of the Romanoff family, by whom the empire was established. He was born in 1845, proclaimed emperor, March 14, 1881, after the assassination of his father by Nihilists, and crowned in 1883. In 1866 he was married to Marie Sophie, daughter of Christian IX., king of Denmark. Several attempts



**ALEXANDER III, CZAR OF RUSSIA.**

have been made on his life, and his person is closely guarded. Nihilist plots have been put down with a strong hand, and many of those connected with them have been sentenced to Siberia.

**Russian Policy and Russian Statesmen.**—In a country like Russia, where free speech is suppressed, where the public censor blots out passages in books and papers commenting on Russian topics, there can really be no well-defined political parties. A large portion of the czar's discontented subjects belong to the Nihilist faction, whose protests take the form of dynamite and attempts on the life of the ruler. This party is the natural out-

growth of despotism. The emperor is surrounded by a body of able men by whom his wishes are carried out. One of the ablest of these is Nicholas Carlovitch de Giers. He is of Swedish origin and was born in 1820. At the age of eighteen he entered the Asiatic department of the foreign office, and, after holding various government positions, at the breaking out of the war with Turkey was attached to the ministry of foreign affairs. For a time he was consul-general to Egypt and later to Wallachia and Moldavia. While ambassador to Teheran he succeeded in strengthening the influence of the Russian government with Persia; then he occupied the same office at Stockholm. As director of the Asiatic department he was called to settle a controversy with England in regard to Central Asia, which he did to the advantage of Russia. On several occasions when Prince Gortchakoff was away he took the department of foreign affairs temporarily, and performed his duty with so much ability that he received the commendation of the emperor. On the death of Gortchakoff in 1882 he became minister of foreign affairs.

The most interesting personage in Russia to-day is the czar himself, from the fact that he holds in his hands the peace of Europe. There has been much talk during the past two years of an alliance with France, but, however much the French may wish to punish Germany for depriving them of Alsace-Lorraine, this alliance so far as the czar is concerned is not for war. He abhors bloodshed and prefers to obtain his ends through diplomacy. It may be noted here that for a dozen years Russia has used every power of beguilement, threat, persecution, and iniquity to bring Bulgaria under her control, while the unhappy position of the Armenians has furnished a pretext for a Russian advance into Asia Minor. There is also a movement by Russia to absorb the upper part of Sweden. The building of the Trans-Siberian railroad is intended not only to strengthen the empire in Asia, but to furnish a quick and convenient outlet to the Pacific.

A strong effort is being made to Russianize the empire. This is one explanation of the persecuting policy of M. Pebedonostzeff against the Jews, and the suppression of Protestantism. In the same line also are the new regulations for Finland, although the czar has declared that he would respect "all the rights, privileges, religion, and fundamental law of Finland."

Another point was gained by Russia in what was known as the "Dardanelles incident." There was an international agreement that Russian war-ships should not pass that strait, and Turkey was to see that the agreement was kept. In defiance of the compact Russia sent some transports through. This raised a controversy, the end of which was that Russia secured the right to send transports with soldiers and supplies through that strait.

**Persecution of the Jews.**—During the past two or three years the Russian government has been driving out the Jews, and these

unfortunate people have sought refuge in various lands, especially the United States and the Argentine Republic. One of the causes of this hatred of the Jews seems to be their monopoly of certain kinds of business, crowding out the Slavonian tradesmen. Moreover, Alexander III. and his predecessors have cherished a Pan-Slavic alliance including the Russians and the people of the Balkan states. This commercial success of the Jews threatens to destroy the Pan-Slavic idea. Another cause of hatred is religious bigotry. The Jews cling to their ancient religion, resisting all efforts to convert them to the Greek Church.

The plan of Baron Hirsch for colonizing these people in other lands is one of the greatest philanthropic schemes of the present age. He has given \$15,000,000 to aid in founding homes for them in other countries, and the plan is now being carried out.

Russia is not the only country in which an anti-Jewish war is being carried on. During 1892 a large number of anti-Semitic pamphlets appeared in Germany. The reason for this is that they have offended one party by voting with the government for the objectionable army bill, and the other by preaching the downfall of the state in extreme socialism. In Roumania there is a growing anti-Semitic party, as there also is in Austria, in Italy, and in France. In all these countries the feeling has found its way into politics, and in France, and more especially in Austria, it has assumed serious dimensions.

TURKEY, or the OTTOMAN EMPIRE, comprises all the countries in which Turkish supremacy is directly or indirectly recognized. Formerly it took in nearly all of the Balkan peninsula in Europe, but now it is reduced to the narrow strip bounded by Austria, Servia, and Bulgaria on the north, and Greece, the *Ægean*, and the sea of Marmora on the south.

Asiatic Turkey takes in Asia Minor and vast adjacent territories. Included in the Turkish dominion are Armenia, Mesopotamia, Cyprus, Syria, and Palestine. Politically Hedjaz, Yemen, and El Hasa are the Turkish provinces of Arabia. The Sinaitic peninsula is in Egyptian hands. England exercises much influence in Hadramant through her possessions in Aden. The sultan of Oman is practically independent and in alliance with England. Nejd may be said to be independent, though the emir of Shomer, or Shammer, its most powerful potentate, pays a small tribute to the sherif of Mecca in recognition of Turkish supremacy. In Africa the Turkish power extends nominally over Egypt (though that country is really under the protection of England), and includes the beylics of Tripoli, Tunis, and Fezzan.

The Turks were originally from Turkestan and founded at different times several empires in Asia. At the end of the thirteenth century one of their princes established their present empire in Asia Minor. A century later they appeared in Europe and gradually subdued the southeastern part of that continent. In

the sixteenth century their dominion extended over the whole of Greece, part of Hungary, the Crimea, and the shores of the Black sea. Austria expelled them from Hungary, Russia deprived them of the provinces between the delta of the Danube and the Caucasus in Europe and those forming Transcaucasia in Asia, the Greeks gained their independence, Algiers was taken by the French, and large territories were cut off after the war of 1876-77. The power of the Turk has now nearly vanished from many provinces of Asia Minor, Arabia, and other countries.

**Government.**—The rule in Turkey is despotic and is based on the precepts of the Koran. The head of the state is the head of the church, and the will of the monarch is absolute where not contrary to the teachings of the prophet. The law-making and executive power is exercised for the sultan by the grand vizier and the sheik-ul-Islam, the former the embodiment of executive power and the latter the director of ecclesiastical affairs and the legal adviser of the sultan. These two officers and the heads of departments form what is known as the sublime porte; hence the Turkish government is often known as the "Porte." In the empire there are a number of great divisions called vilayets; these are subdivided into provinces, and these into districts. The officers are all appointed by the porte, but the lower officers are subject to the higher. Representative councils in the provinces and districts advise concerning the government. In village affairs the people enjoy complete self-government. There is a graded system of courts whose judges are appointed by the porte, and also judges in the provinces and districts elected by the people.

**The Sultan and His Policy.**—The present sultan, Abd-ul-Hamid, was born in 1841, and succeeded his brother Murad V. when he was deposed on account of insanity in 1876. He is a Turk and Mussulman of the old school, and without allies fought Russia rather than submit to conditions that would have brought about the disintegration of the Ottoman empire. The Turks, however, were finally compelled to sue for peace. Since the treaty of Berlin he has shown no great anxiety to carry out the reforms demanded, either in Europe or Asia, though in Bulgaria and Eastern Roumelia he has been fairly loyal to the treaty. The sultan has never ceased to protest against the proceedings of England in Egypt, and he is believed to have secretly instigated the rebellion of Arabi. During Abd-ul-Hamid's reign the general standard of education has been raised; the condition of the army is good, and in the last ten years great progress has been made in the building of railroads and in the development of the resources of the empire. A revolt in the Arabian province of Yemen was completely crushed in 1892. In the same year a conspiracy against the sultan's life was discovered. Its alleged object was the restoration of his brother Murad to the throne.



Since his deposition Murad has been imprisoned in a palace; it is claimed that he is perfectly sane. The government captured the conspirators, sentenced some to death, and ordered others to be transported to Tripoli.

Up to 1891 Kiamil Pasha occupied the position of grand vizier. Russian intrigue, however, was at work to destroy his influence.



SULTAN ABD-UL-HAMID II., OF TURKEY.

Added to this, several perplexing complications in the sultan's European and Asiatic relations arose, such as the Dardanelles incident, the quarrel between the Greek and Latin churches at Bethlehem, the Armenian troubles, and the insurrection in Yemen. These are among the causes of Kiamil's downfall; Djered Pasha, governor of Crete, was appointed in his stead. The change was from a tolerant ministry to one intolerant and bigoted toward every-thing Christian.

If the sultan were so disposed he could do a great deal toward

guarding Europe against the ravages of cholera. Thousands of Mohammedan pilgrims embark each year from Indian ports to Mecca and various holy places on the Red sea and Persian gulf. Thence the disease is carried through the dominions of Persia and Turkey to Europe. An international sanitary council effectually guards Egypt from the plague, and it is held that the European powers should compel the sultan to put the "holy places" under the supervision of sanitary commissions appointed by a European sanitary alliance.

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## Chapter VXXX.

### ROUMANIA, SERVIA, BULGARIA, GREECE, MONTENEGRO.

ROUMANIA is a trifle smaller than the state of New York, and has a million less population. It is in the shape of a crescent with the Black sea on the east, Russia and Austria-Hungary on the north and west, and the Danube river on the south, which separates it from Bulgaria. Roumania comprises the former principalities of Moldavia and Wallachia, with a part of Bessarabia.

It is the Dacia of the Roman empire. Its native population having been almost wholly destroyed or dispersed by war, the emperor Trajan supplied the loss by colonists from Rome. Although the country was afterward overrun by Gepidæ, Goths, Slavs, and Huns, the original Roman population persisted in occupying the country, and gave it their name and language. It formed a separate kingdom in 1290, but was conquered by the Turks in 1479. It gained its independence for a short time, and afterward formed a province of the Ottoman empire until 1829.

By the treaty of Adrianople, the country was placed under the protection of Russia, its vassalage to Turkey being nominal. Moldavia was subjected to the Turkish empire in 1529, but since 1829 it has only been tributary to the Ottoman Porte. The prince, or hospodar, was nominated for life by the sultan and the emperor of Russia conjointly. In 1853 a Russian army invaded the Danubian principalities, and in October of that year the hospodars resigned their government to an extraordinary council of administration. A few weeks later the emperor of Russia appointed a governor. In 1854 the Russians evacuated the country.

Prince Charles of Hohenzollern was elected prince of Roumania in 1866. He was born in Germany in 1839, being the second son of the late Prince Karl of Hohenzollern-Sigmaringen. When elected he was a lieutenant in a regiment of Prussian dragoons. Soon after this event he arrived in Bucharest and received his investiture from the sultan, who was then his suzerain. Roumania assisted the Russians in the war against Turkey, and in 1878 was declared independent. Charles was proclaimed king in 1881. The queen of Roumania is well known to the literary world under the name of "Carmen Sylva."

**Government and Politics.**—The Roumanian constitution vests the legislative authority in a parliament of two houses, the members of which are chosen by the people in indirect election. The executive power is intrusted to the king, but must be exercised through a council of seven responsible ministers. The royal veto is suspensive only. Each of the thirty-one provinces



KING CHARLES, OF ROUMANIA.

has a governor appointed by the crown, and a civil tribunal—a judicial body with executive powers.

The turbulent condition of politics in this kingdom makes it somewhat hard to govern; but Charles is a man of ability and has done remarkably well. In 1888, M. Bratiano, the head of the Liberal party, had to resign as chief of the cabinet in favor of M. Rossetti, the leader of the Young Conservatives, or Junimists. This cabinet was forced, through intrigue, to resign in 1889, and a Conservative ministry under Gen. Mano took its place. The election of 1891 still left the United Liberals and Conservatives in a large majority.

**SERVIA** is a small Balkan state, about the size of New Hampshire and Vermont, surrounded by Austria, Hungary, Roumania, Bulgaria, Macedonia, and Albania. The Servians are a strong, active, handsome Slavonian race. Their industries are in rather a backward state, though they raise many cattle.

Servia was one of the countries overrun by the Turk in the middle ages. From the fourteenth to the nineteenth century it was governed by a pasha appointed by the sultan. A series of revolts occurred from 1804 to 1829, led by Milos Todorovitch, the founder of the present dynasty, who was acknowledged prince in the latter year, and the title was made hereditary in his family. Servia was granted self-government by the treaty of Paris in 1856, and given complete independence by the treaty of Berlin in 1878. Four years later, Milan, the member of the family then reigning, took the title of king, at the request of the popular assembly.

There was much dissatisfaction at the action of the great powers at Berlin among the Servians, because Servia was left the weakest of the Balkan states. This led to a war between Servia and Bulgaria, in which the latter got the better of the contest. To make matters worse, it was said that while King Milan was engaged in this war, his wife, Queen Natalie, was plotting his overthrow. Milan believed that their best interests lay in cultivating friendly relations with Austria. Natalie is a Russian, and strongly Russian in sympathy. She was accused of trying to have her young son Alexander made king, with herself as regent.

In the mean time, the unhappy royal couple were divorced. The Radical (Russian) party was successful in the elections of 1888, and, seeing that he could not carry out his arrangements with Austria, Milan abdicated early in 1889 in favor of his son Alexander. The conditions he proposed on resigning were accepted, viz., that he should have \$120,000 a year from the government and should direct the education of his son.

In attempting to carry out their Russian policy the *skuptschina* (assembly) met with difficulty. Austria-Hungary crippled Servian trade by discriminating in favor of Roumania and Bulgaria. Hungary struck a deadly blow at the principal Servian industry by forbidding the importation of hogs from that country. Turkey punished Servia for its Russian sympathies by appointing three Macedonian bishops, thus reducing Servian influence in the Greek church. The result was that Servia was obliged again to make friends with Austria-Hungary; the law against the importation of Servian hogs was then repealed. Having thus learned a valuable lesson, Servia determined to maintain friendly relations with all its neighbors. It is in danger of forgetting it, however, as it has lately succumbed to Russian influence.

The ex-king (Milan) is a man of natural intelligence and ability, who has sacrificed all the serious and responsible elements in his character to his personal indulgences and follies. When he abdi-

cated in favor of Alexander, it was with the provision that there should be a regency of Servian statesmen during the young king's minority ; he will not be eighteen (the legal age to rule) until August, 1894. The young king created a lively sensation in April, 1893, by imprisoning his regents and assuming control of the government.

Of course no youth of seventeen would originate such a movement; the authors of this stroke of policy are his royal father and



**KING ALEXANDER, OF SERVIA.**

mother. When Milan retired from control the agreement was that he should live out of the country. He is a spendthrift, and, having exhausted the generosity of the Austrian emperor, he turned to Russian sources of supply. In this way he became reconciled to Natalie, who had been expelled from Servia because of the disturbances caused by her presence. There is no doubt it was Russian influence that supported the plans of the *coup d'état*, in order to get rid of a regency with pro-Austrian sympathies. Bulgaria alone of the trio of Danubian states now holds out against Russian intrigue. The painful position of these three little king-

doms can hardly be appreciated by one who has not studied their politics on the ground.

**Government.**—By the constitution the executive power is vested in the crown, assisted by a council of seven ministers, who are individually and collectively responsible to the nation. The legislative power is exercised by two independent bodies, the soviet, or senate, and the skuptschina, or assembly. The former consists of seventeen members appointed by the crown from each



PRINCE FERDINAND, OF BULGARIA.

of the seventeen departments into which the country is divided. The members of the skuptschina are elected by the people—one for every 2000 electors. There is a third body, the grand skuptschina, four times as numerous as the ordinary assembly, but chosen in the same manner. This body is summoned whenever any question of great importance is to be settled. It may elect a king or even dethrone him.

**BULGARIA.**—This country extends from the Black sea two thirds of the way across the Balkan peninsula to Servia. Turkey

bounds it on the south and Roumania on the north. Including Eastern Roumelia it is a trifle smaller than the state of Pennsylvania. Bulgaria is in what is known as the "storm-center of Europe:" in other words, disputes and intrigues there are extremely liable to involve Europe in war.

The Bulgarians are probably a mixture of Finns and Slavs. The language is Slavic, with Turkish elements. Most of the people profess the Greek faith. The population is greatly mixed, including Circassians, Roumanians, Jews, Armenians, Albanians, gypsies, etc.

Previous to 1878 Bulgaria was a Turkish province: since then it has been a principality tributary to Turkey and obliged to struggle against Russian intrigue to maintain its government. It owns what self-government it possesses to the Berlin conference. Russia was not satisfied with the result of that conference, because Bulgaria was a part of the territory it wanted to annex and could not.

The first choice of the Bulgarians as ruler was Prince Alexander Battenberg, a cousin of the grand duke of Hesse, who in 1879 became Alexander I. of Bulgaria. He was at first considered too Russian in his sympathies, but soon became the center of Bulgarian national aspirations, and when, in the winter of 1885-6, he completely defeated the Servians, who had invaded Bulgaria, he became the darling of his people. He fell more and more into disfavor with Russia as he became popular at home, and in 1886 was kidnapped by the Russians and carried away into that country. Returning immediately, he was enthusiastically received, but soon felt compelled to abdicate.

**More Russian Intrigue.**—The country was governed by a regency till the summer of 1887, when the popular assembly of the nation elected as prince Ferdinand, youngest son of Prince Augustus of Saxe-Coburg. His position in Bulgaria has not been a comfortable one; he has to divide his power with the head men of the ministry: the Russians are continually plotting against him, because they want to replace him by a Russian or some one with Russian sympathies.

In February, 1890, a plot was discovered to assassinate or kidnap Ferdinand. Major Pazvaz, a Bulgarian officer, who had served with gallantry in the war with Servia, was convicted and shot, and fourteen of his co-plotters were imprisoned. August 15, 1891, when Prince Ferdinand celebrated the fifth anniversary of his accession to the throne, he declared that his interviews with the emperor of Austria and other crowned heads had convinced him of European confidence in the stability of his government. The Russians were still at work to depose him if possible, for on February 25, 1892, Dr. Velichovich, Bulgarian diplomatic agent at Constantinople, was stabbed to death—an act that is said to have been instigated by Russians. The murdered man is



considered a martyr to Bulgarian freedom, as not only he but other prominent Bulgarians had been warned a short time before. A few months before this M. Baltcheff, the minister of finance, was shot while walking with the premier, M. Stambouloff; the bullet, it is said, having been intended for the latter. M. Kareveloff, formerly prime minister of Prince Alexander, was arrested as the instigator, and M. Nelidoff, the Russian ambassador to Constantinople, was charged with being in the conspiracy. Four of the conspirators were sentenced to death; Kareveloff was sent to prison for five years.

The Russians would not be so bold in their plots did they not receive much encouragement in Bulgaria. There is a strong feeling of gratitude toward Russia, for it was due to her that Bulgaria escaped from Turkish servitude. Those belonging to the Russian party, or the Russophiles, pray for the time when Bulgaria shall march into Salonica, while Russia marches into Constantinople. Then there are the loyal opportunists, headed by M. Radoslavoff, who would support the prince with certain concessions, but detest his advisers, and a third faction composed of the sympathizers of Major Panitza, who say the murdered patriot was shot by order of the blood-thirsty Ferdinand, the scoundrel Stambouloff, and the "Vaurien Moutkourov" (minister of war). In spite of the Russian feeling and the intrigues, it is hard to believe that the Bulgarians, after having once enjoyed liberty, will ever submit to be governed by the bureaucracy of Russia.

**Eastern Roumelia** was created by the Berlin conference and made self-governing, though still a part of the Turkish empire, and was placed under a Christian governor-general. In 1885 a revolution occurred, and the province was declared a part of Bulgaria.

**GREECE.**—This kingdom is a large and irregular peninsula adjoining Turkey on the north, and surrounded on the other sides by the *Ægean*, *Ionian*, and *Mediterranean* seas. The country is mountainous, the coasts being high, very irregular, and deeply indented. There are numerous islands.

The Moslem rule began with the downfall of Constantinople in 1453. For centuries the proud-spirited Greeks groaned under the foreign yoke, and in 1821 the discontent broke forth in revolution. The war continued with the advantage rather on the side of Turkey until 1823, when Lord Byron offered his sword to aid the heroic patriots, but unhappily died before he took any active part in the struggle. Just before that the brave Marco Bozzaris, whom Halleck has immortalized in his poem, was killed during the successful midnight attack on the camp at Carpenesion.

In 1825 Missolonghi was taken, leaving nearly the whole of Greece at the mercy of the Turks. This was followed by the capture of Athens, and the cause of Greek independence seemed hopeless. France, England, and Russia then interfered, and

declared that there should be peace, putting Greece on the footing of a tributary province of Turkey. The latter rejected the terms and sent a fleet to Greece. A battle took place and the Moslem fleet was almost annihilated.

By this victory Greece won her independence. After some unsuccessful attempts to obtain a king, in 1833 the choice fell on Otho, son of the king of Bavaria. All went on well for ten years, when one night Otho's palace was surrounded by the entire garrison of the capital and a crowd of excited citizens, who demanded



KING GEORGE, OF GREECE.

a constitution. Under the circumstances he had to assent; the constitution was drawn up and adopted in 1844.

Otho's government did not get along well under the new constitution, and there were many complaints. In October, 1862, the king and queen took a yachting excursion among the beautiful islands of the Greek archipelago. While they were enjoying themselves, their subjects were employing their time in a far different way; for when they returned they were met at the shore by a committee of citizens, and informed that the king had been deposed and that they could not land. They left for Bavaria.

The crown was offered to Prince George, second son of King

Christian IX. of Denmark, and accepted. One of the conditions of his acceptance was that the Ionian isles should be added to Greece. In 1867 King George married a niece of Alexander II., czar of Russia. They have six children, the eldest son being Prince Constantine.

**Government.**—Greece is a constitutional monarchy, with a strict division of executive and legislative powers, which are intrusted to a king and a parliament of one chamber, called the *boulé*. The executive power is, however, exercised through a responsible ministry, which, enjoying the confidence of the king and commons, both frames and administers the laws. The *boulé* is elected by manhood suffrage every four years, and meets yearly. Every measure must, before adoption, be discussed and voted on, article by article, thrice on three separate days. The council of state, whose business was to criticise and amend bills, was found cumbersome and embarrassing to the ministry, and hence in late years has been allowed to lapse by the government, omitting to make appointments to it.

**Delyannis and Tricoupis.**—Although the government of Greece has worked much smoother than that of most countries of Europe, the kingdom has not been without its troubles. In 1890 the premier, Mr. Tricoupis, lost his majority in the *boulé* and had to step out, notwithstanding the fact that he is a broad and liberal statesman with an economical disposition. Mr. Delyannis became prime minister, and in a few months drove the nation nearly to the verge of bankruptcy by the issue of a large amount of paper money. The foreign trade-balances and the public debt are payable in gold. As it took two dollars in paper money to procure one of gold, this was rather expensive for the government. Mr. Delyannis was unable to secure a sufficient loan, and the king was forced to dismiss him in March, 1892. As Mr. Tricoupis would not take the place with the majority against him in the *boulé*, Mr. Constantopoulo became the head of the cabinet.

**MONTENEGRO**, which is about three fourths as large as the state of Connecticut, is surrounded by Herzegovina, Austrian Albania, Turkish Albania, and the sea. The surface is very mountainous. In 1697 the country was nominally freed from Turkish rule by the prince-bishop. The ruler abandoned the episcopal office in 1851 and became a civil prince, and at the same time declared his independence complete. After a long series of struggles Montenegro was recognized, in 1878, as an independent state; by the treaty of Berlin the territory was more than doubled. There is no constitution, the prince exercising supreme power. Previous to 1868 he made no distinction between public and private accounts. Since then he has made a public accounting of public moneys. The present prince is Nicholas, born in 1841, and succeeded in 1860. The people are of the Slavic race and the Greek faith.

## II. ASIA, AFRICA, OCEANIA.

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### Chapter XX.

#### *CHINA, JAPAN, ANNAM, KHIVA.*

**CHINA.**—The empire of China, with Manchuria, Mongolia, Chinese Turkestan, and Tibet, occupies about one third of Asia, and one tenth of the habitable globe. No other country has paid so much attention to the building of canals, which, in the absence of railroads, and even of wagon-roads, are the only means of internal communication. It is densely inhabited, containing more than one fifth of the population of the world.

The whole nation is non-progressive. The history of China extends back thousands of years; the people reverence the past, and hence resist change and improvement. The religion of the nation is ancestor-worship. Every step made by foreign nations to open their ports has been accomplished by force. About fifty years ago British cannon made them open the ports of Canton, Ning-po, Shanghai, and Amoy, and to cede the island of Hong-kong to her Britannic majesty. In 1856-57 France and England made war on China, which resulted in the latter granting further concessions. During the Tai-ping rebellion, the purpose of which was to expel the Manchu dynasty, several foreign powers interfered and extorted still further commercial privileges. In 1883 China resisted the occupation of Tonkin by the French, but in 1885 was forced to sign a treaty recognizing a French protectorate over Tonkin and Annam.

This dislike of other nations was shown during 1891-92, when there were numerous riots, religious houses were sacked, and foreigners were killed. The government had to contend with these internal disturbances on the one hand, and the threats of foreign powers, in the shape of warships in the rivers, on the other. The rebellion in the north was crushed and its leaders

summarily beheaded, while foreign nations were promised satisfaction.

In addition to the encroachments of France and England on the south, concern is caused by the actions of a powerful neighbor on the north. Recently China united with Great Britain in protesting against Russia's occupation of the Pamir. The conduct of Russian officials is a constant source of anxiety to all the nations whose territories border on those of their big neighbor. At one time come reports of Russian exploring parties in the Pamir, at another time of the Afghan ameer having decided to open Afghanistan to free commercial intercourse with Russia, and at another time rumors of a Russian protectorate in Persia. Just now the trans-Siberian railway is being constructed within a stone's throw of China's northern boundary. As by means of this road Russia could mass troops there in a very short time it will force China to be friendly with that great power.

These facts show that no nation in our progressive age can remain completely isolated. The Chinese will undoubtedly increase their intercourse with other nations, the late resolve of the young emperor to study English being a move in that direction. The Chinese are already seeking other lands in vast numbers. They are found in every country bordering on the Pacific ocean. The trade of our country with the two great empires of China and Japan will henceforth increase at a marvelous rate.

**Government.**—In theory China is an absolute monarchy, but it is not really so. The emperor is looked upon as the father of his people, the government being known as "paternal despotism." China proper is composed of eighteen provinces, over which the power of the emperor is supreme. His advisers consist of (1) the inner or privy council, and (2) the general or strategical council. The former consists of four members, two of Tartar and two of Chinese origin, besides two assistants from the Hanlin, or Great College, who have to see that nothing is done contrary to the civil and religious laws contained in the "regulations" and in the sacred books of Confucius. The strategical council, in which there are six boards, each presided over by a Tartar and a Chinese, corresponds to the British cabinet.

Independent of the government, and theoretically above the central administration, is the Tu-chah-yuen, or board of public censors. It consists of from forty to fifty members, under two presidents, one of Tartar and one of Chinese birth. By the ancient custom of the empire, all the members of the board are privileged to present any remonstrance to the sovereign. One censor must be present at the meetings of each of the six government boards.

There is no law of hereditary succession to the throne, but it is left to each sovereign to appoint his successor from the members of the royal family. If an emperor dies without naming his suc-

censor, the choice is exercised by his widow or next of kin, acting in the name of the family.

The administrative machinery of the empire is very perfect. Next below the emperor in authority are the rulers over vice-royalties, which consist of two or more provinces. Below these are the governors of provinces, and under them are intendants who rule over circuits (consisting usually of three departments); while still lower come prefects who govern departments (about six districts), and lower still are magistrates of districts and a



EMPEROR KIANG SI. OF CHINA.

whole army of petty officials. The governors exercise almost despotic power over the lives and property of citizens, and each official does pretty much as he pleases in his territory, outside of certain general instructions from his superiors. He must maintain order, and sometimes this taxes his ability to the utmost. The mandarins are constantly suppressing rebellions, but accounts of very few of them ever reach the Western world. All the government offices are filled by an elaborate system of competitive examinations.

**The Ruling Dynasty.**—Tsai-teen, the present emperor, is the son of Prince Chun. He was born August 15, 1871, and succeeded

to the throne on the death of his cousin, January 12, 1875, taking the name of Kuang Sü, or "an inheritance of glory." He exercises authority over more people than any other person in the world.

Kuang-Sü belongs to the Manchu dynasty of emperors, and notwithstanding the fact that members of that family have occupied the throne for nearly two hundred and fifty years, there is a strong party in favor of their expulsion. The Ming native dynasty ruled up to 1644, when they were overthrown on account of misgovernment. The Manchus established themselves at Peking, and, after a seven years' struggle, obtained control of the whole empire. They have been obliged to struggle continually to maintain their power, for the Chinese still regard them as foreigners.

The most noted statesman in China is Li Hung Chang, the premier, whose latest and greatest feat was the crushing out of the rebellion in the northern provinces. He is the son of a poor wood-cutter in the province of Nganwhi. On finishing his education he entered the army. During the Tai-ping rebellion he succeeded in driving the rebels out of the province of Kiangsu, of which he was governor. In 1863 he and the famous General Gordon stormed Soo-Chow. Gordon became very angry because Li executed five rebel generals whom he had promised to spare, but afterward admitted that this act shortened the war. Li was made vice-regent of the Kiangsi and Kiangsu provinces in 1866. When, in 1870, the government was in despair over a threatened attack of Western nations, on account of the massacre of French nuns, Li became prime minister, and by his sagacity prevented war. Since the Tonkin war (1885) he has been creating a navy and strengthening the fortifications. He is the only Chinaman who understands China's position in relation to treaties with foreign powers. The Manchu dynasty has always found him a firm friend.

JAPAN consists of a large number of islands, the principal ones being Hondo, Yezo, Shikoku, and Kiushiu. The total area is a little more than three times that of the state of New York, and the population about forty million. The Japanese are of the Mongolian race, and are stout and well made. They are amiable, intellectual, and patriotic. In certain manufactures they are unexcelled, and are successful as farmers.

The monarchy is a very ancient one, the authentic history extending back for over 2500 years. The ancient government, as well as the religion upon which it is based, was obtained from China by way of Corea. In it the mikado was supreme, possessing full power over the life and property of his subjects, and exacting the personal service of every man one day in twelve, by way of taxes. His power was undermined by the daimos, or feudal nobles, who lodged all the temporal power in the hands of 266

chiefs, headed by the tycoon, and supported by a large army. The mikado became merely the spiritual head of the nation. Their rule grew so oppressive that a revolution occurred in 1868, by which the temporal power of the mikado was restored. The feudal system was abolished in 1871.

Within the past few years Japan has made wonderful progress in civilization, and in the adoption of western manners and customs. Treaties have been arranged with the United States and with European nations, by which the principal ports are thrown open to trade. The new coinage and the currency are made to harmonize



MUTSU HITO, MIKADO OF JAPAN.

more or less with those of the United States: a regular postal service has been established, hundreds of miles of telegraph have been erected, and several railways are in operation. Education has made great advances. The present mikado (emperor) is Mutsu Hito.

**The New Constitution.**—The proclamation of a constitution was the great political event of 1889 in Japan: the corresponding event of 1890 was the assembling of the imperial diet and its formal opening in November. The house of peers, with 392 possible members, is partly nominated and fully officered by the government: the 300 members of the house of representatives are elected by the people. Count Ito, president of the upper cham-



ber, compiled the constitution. Nakashima, appointed president of the lower house on its nomination of three candidates to the emperor, is a native Christian. Eleven members of this house are Christian; also three members of the house of peers.

The parties represented in the diet are the Constitutional-Liberal, whose ideas are triumphant in the adoption of a constitution; the National-Liberal, a reactionary party, declaring for "Old Japan," and so largely anti-foreign and anti-Christian; the Independent-Conservatives, a more radical faction of similar principles and purposes, and the Progressives, promoters of western civilization in Japan. The opposition to this party is very bitter.

The reaction against foreigners and foreign influence has strengthened, and there have been occasional outbreaks against foreign residents. The strength of this feeling was shown by the attempt, in the streets of Otsu, on the life of Prince Nicholas, the heir to the Russian throne. He escaped with slight injuries. The great body of the Japanese people were horrified at this, as they look upon members of royal houses with especial reverence.

Japan is seeking to extend her colonial relations. Large bodies of Japanese have been carried to Hawaii, and an association has been formed for colonizing the Bonin islands, lying midway between Japan and the Carolines. Since the change in her constitution and policy Japan is rising to the position of a great power. Her army is modelled after that of Germany, and in the construction of her navy she has had the assistance of British naval officers, sent there for the purpose by the British government.

ANNAM, sometimes called Cochin-China, is a nominal kingdom in southeastern Asia, since 1884 a French protectorate, and virtually a division of French Indo-China. It is situated on the China sea, and extends from Tonkin on the north to French Cochin-China on the south, and from Siam and Cambodia on the west to the sea on the east. The young prince Bun Can was proclaimed king January 3, 1889. The ports of Turene, Qui-Nhon, and Xuan Day have been opened to European commerce, the first-named having been conceded to France.

KHIVA is a country of Turkestan bordering on the sea of Aral. The population is very mixed, the dominant race being Oozbeks. In 1873 the khanate became virtually subject to Russia, but it retains a nominal independence. Seid Mehemed, the present ruler, acceded in 1868.

## Chapter X.

### *INDIA, NEPAUL, BELUCHISTAN, AFGHANISTAN, COREA, SIAM, BOKHARA, PERSIA, OMAN.*

INDIA embraces an extensive empire belonging to the British crown, consisting of the great central peninsula of southern Asia and a narrow strip along the east side of the bay of Bengal. It comprises several native states, besides those directly subject to British rule. Over most of these the British have control, giving protection for the payment of a yearly tribute. Some of them are required to provide a native force, which is placed at the disposal of the British to resist the common enemy.

The first British settlement in India was made in 1625, near Madras. Then the Calcutta station was secured, and in 1687 Bombay was erected into a presidency. Nearly a century later the three provinces were placed under a governor-general, Calcutta being made the seat of the supreme council. Since 1750, when the warlike acquisition of territory began under Lord Clive, successive conquests have placed nearly all India under British sway. The East India Company ceased to rule the country in 1858, and the sovereignty of the empire was conferred on the British crown by proclamation. The central provinces and British Burmah were consolidated in 1861-2. (For sepoy rebellion see "Queen Victoria's Reign.") Queen Victoria was proclaimed empress of India in 1876.

**Government.**—The governor-general (the marquis of Lansdowne, appointed in 1888), assisted by an executive council of five and a legislative council in which the natives are represented, has the power of making laws for India, subject to the approval of the home government. In London a secretary of state for India and a council appointed by the government supervise the management of Indian affairs. For administrative purposes the Indian empire is divided into eleven provinces, each governed by a governor, a lieutenant-governor, or a commissioner—namely, the Punjab, the Northwest province, Oude, Bengal, Assam, Burmah, the Central province, Bombay, and Sind, Madras, Mysore, and Berar; two states directly under the government of India—Ajmeer and Coorg; and 154 feudatory states, ruled by native chiefs, with the help of political agents representing the viceroy.

Ceylon, a large island on the southwest coast, is also a crown

colony of Great Britain. The government is administered by a governor-general appointed by the crown.

**The Manipur and Other Troubles.**—In 1891 an expedition was sent against the Pathan tribes on the northwest border of India who had defied British authority. After a stubborn resistance they were subdued. On the other extremity of the British Asiatic possessions Gen. Wolseley hunted the Burmese Tsawba across the Chinese boundary.

To offset these successes, disaster overtook the British arms in Manipur. This is a small independent state lying among the hills between India and Burmah, whose affairs are in the hands of its own people, subject to the tutelage of a British resident. The senaputty (commander of the army) without British leave ventured to depose the maharajah, replacing him by another who was more to his liking. Mr. Quinton, chief commissioner of Assam, with a small body of native troops set out for the capital of Manipur in March, 1891, to arrest the senaputty and banish him for a term of years. After an unsuccessful fight with overwhelming numbers, Mr. Quinton and five others went out to treat with the enemy, but were treacherously murdered. The survivors began a retreat and succeeded in reaching a place of safety. An army was then sent and occupied Manipur, and captured those concerned in the murder of Mr. Quinton and his companions. They were afterward tried and punished.

Recently India has suffered from a trouble of a far different kind. On account of the depreciation of silver the government decided to stop coining that metal. As India was a heavy purchaser of American silver, this action will have effect on the price of silver here, and may have much to do with the settlement of the financial question.

**NEPAUL.**—This is an independent country of India on the southern slope of the Himalayas. Its length from east to west is 450 miles and its width 100 miles; area, 53,000 square miles; population, 3,000,000. The government is vested in the tribe of the Gorkhas, who conquered the country about the middle of the last century. After the war of 1814-16 the Gorkhas ceded to the British all the country situated between the Satlaj and Kali rivers, and agreed to evacuate the territory of Sikkim. The population consists of several tribes partly of Mongol origin and Buddhists, but chiefly of Hindu faith and descent. The important trade between Cashmere and the Chinese empire passes through the country.

**BELUCHISTAN** is a wild, barren country between Afghanistan, Persia, the Sinde, and the Indian ocean. The predatory tribes are governed nominally by a khan, but practically are in a state of anarchy. The Baluchees are supposed to be of Arabian descent; the Brahuees are probably descended from the ancient inhabitants of the Punjab. Both are Mohammedans. Trade and

commerce are considered dishonorable, while a pastoral life combined with robbery are held in high esteem. By the treaty of 1876 Beluchistan came under British protection, and since 1877 an agent of the British government has resided at Kelat.

**AFGHANISTAN.**—This country, about four times the size of the state of New York, is an elevated plateau north of Beluchistan, extending from the Hindu Kush to the Persian frontier and northward to Bokhara and Turkestan. It is an hereditary feudal monarchy.

In the autumn of 1878 a Russian envoy arrived at Cabul, the capital of Afghanistan, and was kindly received by the ameer. Soon after a British embassy arrived to inquire the purpose of such a step and was not allowed to enter the country. By order of the home government armed forces were sent from India, one division going by the Khyber pass. The ameer, Shere Ali, fled from the country, and died soon after, leaving affairs in the hands of his son, Yakoob Khan, who succeeded him as ameer. By the terms of the treaty that was then made a British agent was allowed to reside at Cabul. Foreign affairs were to be conducted under British advice; Great Britain was to defend the ameer against foreign invasion, and to pay him an annual subsidy of \$300,000. The Khyber and Mincee mountain-passes were to be under British control. Owing to the treachery or inefficiency of the ameer the treaty was not observed. British forces again invaded the country and placed it under a military governor. The ameer, becoming unpopular, was obliged to abdicate and was succeeded by Abdurrahman, the present ruler, in 1880.

Affairs in Afghanistan remained in an unsettled state for some time. The northern boundary-line of Afghanistan, separating it from the Turkestan provinces of Russia, has not been well defined and has often been differently interpreted and understood by the two great powers. This has led to movements which have been watched by England with jealous care, for Russia is known to have a desire to extend her possessions and her influence southward toward India. The boundary-line difficulty was finally settled by diplomacy in London. The Penjdeh district was ceded to Russia; while the Zulfikar pass, leading through the mountains on the west toward the Persian frontier, was retained by the Afghans.

Although Russian \* agents are working hard among the masses

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\* It will be noted, in spite of the vast extent of Russian territory already, how constantly Russian agents are at work seeking to extend it. That this aggressive policy has been successful is shown by the vast increase of Russian dominion in the past hundred years. Great Britain, however, is the greatest colonizing and commercial nation of the age. She rarely fails to take advantage to strengthen her chain of trading posts that extends around the world. In many cases where France has founded a colony Great Britain has succeeded in absorbing it into her possessions; but there are few cases where France has taken possession of British colonies.

and appealing to their patriotism to inflame them against Great Britain they are making very little headway. Abdurrahman Khan is introducing English industries among his turbulent subjects; and, as Englishmen are giving employment to a large number of natives, the resulting growth of sentiment favors England rather than Russia.

COREA is a peninsular country in eastern Asia. It is ruled by a king whose sway is absolute, and though nominally subject to China he seems to enjoy practical freedom. The government is organized like that of China. The ministry is divided into five departments, which form the center of all civil and military appointments. Each of the eight provinces has a governor. During the past ten years the United States and several European countries have made treaties with Corea. There is a strong party that opposes foreigners coming into the country and objects to the introduction of Christianity. So strong did the anti-foreign feeling become early in 1893 that Secretary Gresham ordered a warship to go there to protect American interests in case of a disturbance. The king of Corea is Li Hung, who was born in 1851 and ascended the throne in 1864.

At present the United States and Japan are the only nations that recognize the independence of Corea. England recognizes China's claim of suzerainty, because she needs the aid of that power in checking the aggressions of Russia; and, with other nations, only sends consular agents to Korean ports. The United States has a full legation at Seoul. This action of the United States has not improved her relations with China.

SIAM.—The kingdom of Siam forms the chief territorial division of the Indo-Chinese peninsula, and with its dependencies Laos, Cambodia, and Malacca has an area of a quarter of a million square miles and a population of 12,000,000. It has several good harbors, of which Bangkok, the capital, is the chief. The Siamese are of the Mongolian family and of a mild and humane disposition. Like all Oriental nations the Siamese are very exclusive, but Portuguese, Spanish, French, Dutch, and others have succeeded in making treaties with them. Within the past fifty years Great Britain and the United States have also made treaties. Recent monarchs have shown a disposition to adopt European customs. The French seem to be taking advantage of every opportunity to gain a foothold in the peninsula. In July, 1893, French warships attempted to ascend the Menam river to Bangkok. Numerous shots were exchanged with the forts. As a result of the difficulty Siam was forced to acknowledge the extension of French authority over a large amount of additional territory.

**Government.**—Siam is an absolute monarchy. The country is divided into forty-one provinces, each presided over by a governor responsible to the king. There is no standing army, but most of

the male population are liable to serve a portion of the year. The king of Siam is Phrabat Somdet Phra Yuhua, who was born in 1853 and succeeded to the throne in 1868.



NASSER-ED-DIN, SHAH OF PERSIA.

**BOKHARA.**—The khanate of Bokhara at present is a relatively small state under Russian control, separated from Afghan Turkestan by the Amoo-Darya. It is inhabited mainly by people

of Turkish stock and of many tribes, the Oozbeks predominating. Trade is carried on with Russia, chiefly by caravans. The present ameer is Seid Abdul Ahad, who acceded in 1885.

PERSIA has Russia for a neighbor on the north, Turkey on the west, and Afghanistan and Beluchistan on the east. The Persian gulf and sea of Oman give it over 800 miles of coast line and the Caspian 400 more. The eastern half is a barren plateau 4000 feet above the sea. The Russian frontier has been pushed forward many hundred miles during the last half-century, and Persia has lost control of Georgia, Erivan, and many other provinces in the northwest. The shah carried on an unsuccessful war with England in 1856-7; since then he has been disposed to be friendly with that country. The Persian troops have been disciplined by British officers, and large subsidies paid to the Persian government by England. In all this we can see that it is the policy of that country to build up a bulwark to protect her Indian empire from Russia.

The shah of Persia is Nasser-ed-Din, born in 1831 and acceded in 1848. He belongs to the dynasty of the Kajaas that ascended the throne in the latter part of the eighteenth century. In July, 1892, an attempt was made to take his life; he was seriously wounded. Considerable rioting occurred in 1892 on account of a tobacco monopoly granted to an English syndicate. The priests placed an interdict against the use of tobacco, which they said was contrary to the teachings of the Koran. The feeling grew so strong that the mobs that gathered in front of the shah's palace had to be dispersed by the military. The government then prudently abrogated all its agreements with the syndicate.

**Government.** — The government of Persia is an unlimited despotism. The executive power is administered by a divan or council of seven members, which carries out the sovereign will. The Koran is the law, both civil and ecclesiastical, modified at the will of the judges.

OMAN is a country of Arabia between the Persian gulf and the sea of Oman. The sultan, Seyyid Feysal bin Turkee, acceded in 1888.

## Chapter XX.

### THE PARTITION OF AFRICA—EGYPT, MADAGASCAR.

**The Partition of Africa.**—During the past thirty-five years the continent of Africa, about the interior of which little was hitherto known, has been opened to the world. We know now that the interior is not a burning desert, but much of it high and salubrious ground, covered by luxuriant forests, watered by copious rains, and tempered by mountains and great lakes. There is a rainfall of between forty-eight and eighty inches in a belt ten degrees wide, extending from coast to coast across the continent just north of the equator; also ten degrees south of the equator from the great lakes to the east coast. The rest of southern Africa, excepting the Kahlahari desert and one other tract, receives from twenty-four to forty-eight inches of rain. Most of the Congo Free State is heavily wooded, the elevation being from 500 to 2000 feet, while all the rest of the continent to the south and east ranges from 2000 to 5000 feet above the level of the sea, with considerable portions above 5000 feet. The average temperature ranges from sixty degrees Fahrenheit in Cape Colony to eighty at the equator.

In the past ten years the powers of Europe have seized upon one territory after another until there are no unappropriated spots south of the equator and not many north of it. France has more territory in Africa than any other nation. Beginning with Tunis and Algiers on the Mediterranean, its territory runs south to Laka Tchad, thence west to the coast above Sierra Leone, embracing most of the great desert, Senegal, part of the Gold coast, and a small strip next to British Lagos, on the Guinea coast. In this immense stretch of country, 1700 by 2000 miles in extent, France has a possession equal to two thirds the area of the United States, including Alaska. Adding to this the colony north of the Congo, the French possessions comprise nearly one fourth of the continent.

Great Britain has Cape Colony and a broad belt extending northward to the southern limit of the Congo Free State and Lake Tanganyika, bounded on the left by German and Portuguese territory and on the right by Portuguese East Africa. It has the southern coast to the Orange river on the west, and to the Kosi river, just below Delagoa bay, on the east. British East Africa



begins on the coast at a point above Zanzibar and extends northward to the southern boundary of the Italian protectorate, stretching into the interior as far as the Victoria Nyanza, the shores of the upper half of which it embraces, and thence northward to the country of the Mahdi. There is, besides, the North Somal coast, on the Gulf of Aden. On the west coast are Gambia, Sierra Leone, and Gold-coast colonies, and the Niger and Oil-river protectorates. If Egypt is regarded as a British protectorate, the British and French possessions in Africa are about the same. The British territory, however, has a third more population than the French and is much more valuable.

Portugal has a coast line in East Africa of about 1100 miles, from Cape Delgado south to the Kosi river, and with a still larger possession south of the Congo on the west coast, and a small colony in Guinea. Its possessions cover 841,000 square miles.

Germany has Togoland in Guinea; the Cameroon country, just north of French Congo; a large territory on the southwest coast extending north from the Orange river to Portuguese Angola, and a possession in East Africa extending along the coast from Cape Delgado north to Pongwe, and into the interior to the borders of the Congo Free State and the Victoria Nyanza. The total area of the German possessions is 822,000 square miles.

The Congo Free State includes 864,000 square miles. Italy has Abyssinia, Erythrea on the Red sea, and Somaliland on the west coast—602,000 square miles. Spain has a protectorate north of Senegal, and a claim on a small portion of French Congo—214,000 square miles. The republics of Liberia, Orange Free State, and the Transvaal complete appropriated Africa.

In the territory divided among these powers are numerous tribes, ruled by native chiefs, and these of course come under the dominion of the respective governments. Steamers run on many of the lakes and rivers, but the railroad on the lower Congo is not yet ready. The close of the century will see commerce on the continent greatly developed, while the slave trade, from which the natives have suffered so greatly, will doubtless in a few years be entirely wiped out.

EGYPT proper is bounded by the Mediterranean, the Red sea, Nubia, and the great deserts. Its dependencies include Egyptian Soudan, Nubia, and a region called the Provinces of the Equator, held by military occupation and extending up the White Nile nearly to the equatorial lakes.

From the advent of the Turk to the present century Egypt was a mere dependency of Turkey. Mehemet Ali, appointed governor in 1806, made himself master of the country and compelled the sultan to confer on him the title of viceroy. Then the office was made hereditary, the succession vesting, according to Moslem custom, in the oldest male heir of the sovereign. In 1866 the sultan conferred the title of Khedive (king) of Egypt on the ruler,

and the sovereignty of Turkey was recognized only by the payment of an annual tribute, by the imperial cipher on the Egyptian coin, by the preservation of the right of the Porte to send embassies to examine Egyptian affairs, and by the weekly prayer for the sultan in the mosques. The sultan still retained the right to depose the khedive, and in 1879 exercised it at the request of European powers, who claimed that Ismail borrowed money and made no effort to pay it. In confirming the new khedive, Tewfik, the sultan took away from him the right to pledge the credit of



ABBAS PASHA, KHEDIVE OF EGYPT.

the state for foreign loans and to increase the army beyond a certain limit.

In 1880 five European nations undertook the regulation of the public debt. The next year a rebellion was begun against foreign influence by Arabi Pasha, an officer in the army, which was so successful that he became practically dictator. English and French war-ships were sent to Alexandria. The British ordered that work on the fortifications should cease, and not being obeyed the city was bombarded. A British force then invaded Egypt and utterly defeated Arabi at Tel-el-Kebir.

*Then the British cabinet undertook the administration of the*

government. In the meantime a rebellion occurred under the Mahdi (Guide of the Faithful) in the Soudan.\* It was during this struggle that the brave Gen. Gordon lost his life. Since then the French have constantly made efforts to get the British to evacuate Egypt, but are always met with the reply that they will remain there until a stable government is assured.

The khedive, Tewfik, died in 1892, and was succeeded by his son Abbas, a youth of eighteen. Lately the British showed that they intended to maintain their influence by compelling the young ruler to dismiss a cabinet that was not satisfactory to them.

**Government.**—From the above it will be seen that, though Egypt is under the suzerainty of the Turkish porte, it is really a British protectorate. Before the rebellion of 1882 the government was a despotism. Now the public administrative functions are regulated by a council of state. There is also an assembly of delegates, whose members are chosen by the communes, with an advisory voice in public affairs.

**MADAGASCAR.**—This island, lying east of Africa in the Indian ocean, has nearly as great an area as the state of Texas. In the middle of the seventeenth century the French and English tried to establish colonies on the island, but failed on account of the climate. The French afterward occupied a few coast islands. When Radama became king in 1808 he encouraged the missionaries and attempted many reforms, but was finally poisoned by his queen, who succeeded him to the throne. But Christianity continued to spread and the queen at last consented to be baptized.

The present queen is Ranavalona III., who came to the throne in July, 1883. She is the niece of her predecessor, Queen Ranavalona II., who named her successor after which she was formally elected to the position. According to a custom of the country, on coming to the throne she married the prime minister of the kingdom (Raimlalarivono), who had also been the husband of the preceding queen.

The government is a monarchical despotism. Judges sit constantly in public to hear complaints and settle disputes, but they are not governed by any written code of laws. The Hovas are the ruling tribe, but they have frequent troubles especially with the Sakalavas; such a disturbance occurred in 1891. The kingdom is under the influence of the French, who insist that a protectorate is necessary in order to maintain order.

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\* Much confusion has arisen in regard to the Soudan, a large part of it, no doubt, coming from the fact that there are two Soudans. One is known as "The Soudan" and the other as "Soudan or Nigritia," the home of the negro race. This last Soudan is a vast territory running through Central Africa, and bounded on the north by the Sahara desert, on the west by Senegambia, on the east by "The Soudan," and on the south by Upper Guinea. The Soudan, of which so much has been heard of late, lies between Nigritia, Egypt proper, the Red sea, Abyssinia, and about the seventh degree of north latitude. Its capital is Khartoum, at the junction of the Blue and White Nile. This town is the center of the slave traffic conducted by Arabs.

## Chapter XXX.

*CAPE COLONY, NATAL, TRANSVAAL, ORANGE  
FREE STATE, ZANZIBAR, MOROCCO, ABYSSINIA,  
CONGO FREE STATE, LIBERIA, TUNIS,  
TRIPOLI.*

CAPE COLONY forms the southernmost part of the continent of Africa. The cape region was settled by the Dutch in 1652, but passed in 1806 into British possession. The sovereign of Great Britain appoints the governor and has a veto on the legislation. Otherwise the government is purely representative. Lately great progress has been made in building railroads and telegraphs, and founding schools and colleges.

The white inhabitants are mainly of Dutch descent, but many English, Germans, and French have settled in the colony. During recent years the diamond fields, the most productive in the world, have attracted a large number of Europeans. The natives consist of Hottentots, Bushmen, Kaffirs, negroes, and Bechuanas.

**Mr. Rhodes and Mashonaland.**—The premier of Cape Colony, who is now regarded as the premier of South Africa, is Mr. Cecil Rhodes, a man of great ability and enterprise after the type of those men who have made our Western states. Probably the greatest achievement of Mr. Rhodes was the sending of an expedition under Sir John Willoughby to occupy Mashonaland. This is said to be the famous land of Ophir from which King Solomon received so much gold and silver that he made these metals "as stones in the streets of Jerusalem." The expedition was entirely successful and the British South African Company went vigorously to work to take full possession and establish connections between this country and the older colonies. If it had not been for Mr. Rhodes's promptness in seizing this land it would have been taken by the Boers, Germans, or Portuguese. One difficulty in extending the territory to the north is that it increases the voting black population. In order to keep control of the government the whites favor giving more than one vote to those possessing educational and property qualifications.

**NATAL** is a small country bounded by the Orange Free State, Zululand, and the ocean. It was discovered by Vasco da Gama in 1497, and became a British colony in 1836. The territory is administered by a lieutenant-governor nominally under the gov-

ernment of Cape Colony. The labor question is a vexatious one in Natal. The Kaffirs will not work and coolies have been introduced, but not without attendant evils. The people fear that Natal is in danger of being absorbed by Cape Colony.

THE TRANSVAAL formed an independent republic from 1840 to 1877, when it was annexed to Cape Colony. In 1880 the Boers took up arms and the next year they were granted complete self-government. They changed the name to the South African Republic. The rights of self-government of this state are administered by a president and *volksraad*, or chamber of deputies. The president is S. J. Paul Krüger, elected in 1888 for five years. Great Britain retains the right to supervise the foreign affairs of the republic and its dealings with the native tribes.

The Boers who inhabit this country possess all the sturdy characteristics of the Dutch stock from which they came. Since their late victory over British troops, due to their superior marksmanship, their attitude has been one of disregard of, if not of contempt for, British interests. In April, 1891, it was announced that 5000 Boers proposed to occupy the land in dispute between England and Portugal. They planned to cross the Limpopo river, occupy the land, and proclaim the "Republic of the North." Through the efforts of President Krüger and the threats of the British government they were induced to give up the expedition.

THE ORANGE FREE STATE is a republic, whose independence dates from 1854. It is bounded by the British colonies of Cape Colony and Natal, and the Transvaal. Its government is similar to that of the Transvaal. The president and assembly are both elected by the people. F. W. Reitz was elected president in 1888 for a term of five years. The people are partly of native origin, but the dominant race consists of Boers, of Dutch descent and language.

ZANZIBAR.—This is a sultanate on the east coast of Africa, comprising the islands of Zanzibar, Monfia, and Pemba, and many smaller coast islands. Its ruler became independent of the imam of Muscat in 1862, and the sultanate then passed under British protection. A commission representing the governments of Great Britain, France, and Germany in 1886 fixed the boundaries of Zanzibar on the mainland and defined their own several "spheres of influence" in the sultan's dominions, thus reducing the sultanate to little more than a satrapy of these governments. Ali Ben Said, the sultan, died early in March, 1893, and there was a contest over his successor. Many of the natives favored his son Kalid, mainly on account of British opposition to the slave trade. Kalid took possession of the palace, intending to hold it by force, but the British commander threatened that if he did not surrender the place would be carried by storm. Kalid then surrendered. Hamid, a nephew of the late ruler, was declared sultan.

MOROCCO.—The sultanate of Morocco is the largest of the

group formerly known as the Barbary states. Much of the interior country is a desert, and part of it has never been explored by Europeans.

The sultan has only a nominal control over a large part of the interior country, which is governed by its own local officers and heads of tribes. Besides the capitals, Fez and Morocco, there are few cities of any importance. The present sultan is Mulai Hassan, who was born in 1831 and began to rule in 1878.

The chief wealth of the inhabitants consists in their flocks and herds. The Arabs are mostly nomadic, the Berbers are engaged in agriculture, while the Moors and Jews derive their livelihood in cities as merchants, etc. Then there are many negroes, the descendants of slaves from equatorial Africa. The language spoken is a dialect of the Arabic.

The affairs of Morocco derive interest mainly owing to European nations being involved in them. Italy is fortifying her position there by starting arm factories; Germany has a monopoly of exporting wheat and barley; Spain has a firm hold on the northern portion; while France is encroaching from Algeria.

ABYSSINIA is a country lying along the Red sea between Nubia and the country of the Somalis. It is about 650 miles long and 550 miles wide. In ancient times it was a part of what was known as Ethiopia. A chief of supreme talents obtained the throne of Abyssinia in 1855 and took the title of Theodore III. For some fancied insult on the part of the British government in 1864 he imprisoned the British consul and other British subjects. A British army, under Sir Robert Napier, invaded Abyssinia in 1868. Theodore shut himself up in Magdala, which the British took by storm. They there found the dead body of the king, who is supposed to have killed himself. He was succeeded by Prince Kassai, of Tigré, who was crowned as King Johannes. After his death in 1889 Menelek II., king of Shoa, became ruler. In the same year Abyssinia became practically an Italian protectorate.

THE CONGO FREE STATE was created as the result of an international congress in Berlin in 1884. Previous to this Henry M. Stanley had accomplished a great work in developing the basin of the Congo. The sovereign is Leopold, king of the Belgians. This state comprises a vast territory drained principally by the Congo river and its branches. It extends eastward to Lakes Tanganyika and Albert Edward, northward about four degrees above the equator, and southward to British territory.

A railroad is being built from Vivi, whence deep-sea vessels can be taken up to Stanley Pool, 275 miles: it will be the outlet for the commerce of over 7000 miles of river connection.

The financial condition of the state has not been all that could be desired, as the yearly expenses have been in excess of the revenue. The expenses imposed on the state for the suppression of slavery come to \$800,000 a year. In order to carry out this

work it was decided that duties on imports were necessary, although one of the provisions of the Berlin conference was that no duties on imports should be levied for twenty years. An act was passed, and approved by the powers, authorizing a duty of ten per cent on all duties imported into the Congo State, French Congo, and the British and German colonies on the east.

**LIBERIA** is a republic on the west coast of Africa, extending from the Sherboro to the Pedro river and comprising an area of 15,000 square miles. It was founded by a colony of free blacks in 1820, by the American Colonization Society, with the idea that many of the liberated slaves in the United States would prefer returning to Africa. The whole territory of Liberia has been purchased from time to time from the original owners. The Liberians have built for themselves many churches, and possess schools and a number of printing-presses. The government is precisely on the American model, consisting of a president, a vice-president, a senate, and a house of representatives. J. J. Cheeseman became president in 1892.

**TUNIS**, one of the Barbary states, was for a long time nominally dependent on Turkey. The country is naturally fertile, but the extortions of the government discourage agriculture and much of the land is in a state of nature. The present bey is Sidi Ali Pasha, born in 1817. He began to rule in 1882. Since the war of 1881-82 the country has been under French protection, and is governed jointly by French and Tunisian officers. The people consist of Moors, Arabs, Turks, negroes, Kabylis, and Jews, with a few Christians.

**TRIPOLI**, though a province of the Turkish empire, has its local ruler. The government is an unmitigated and barbarous despotism. The bey, dey, or pasha, generally chosen from among the Turkish officers resident in the capital and confirmed by the sultan, sets an example of tyranny and extortion which is eagerly imitated by his subordinates. The more regular sources of revenue are direct tribute from the Arabs and district governors, a land tax, a tax on Jews and merchants, and export and import duties. The rural population consists principally of Arabs, and the town population of Moors, with a considerable intermixture of Jews.

## Chapter XXX.

## AUSTRALASIA, SAMOA, HAWAII, SARAWAK.

**AUSTRALASIA.**—Australia, now called a continent, was first known to Europeans in the early part of the sixteenth century, when Dutch, Portuguese, and Spanish navigators explored the eastern seas. Tasman discovered New Zealand, and Tasmania was named after him. The voyage of Capt. Cook in 1770 was the beginning of Anglo-Australian history. He explored the country sufficiently to convince him that settlement was desirable. In 1788 the first English fleet anchored in Botany bay.

**New South Wales.**—During the earlier part of the history of the country the territory now included in this province was used as a penal colony. The necessity of securing another kind of immigration was soon seen, and free immigration made considerable progress under several governors. In 1852 the English government agreed to send no more convicts to any Australian colony which should refuse to receive them. Government by responsible ministers was established in 1856. In this, as in all the Australian colonies, the great questions were those of labor and of land. Every immigrant, in the early days of the colony, was entitled to free passage and a grant of land. This brought a train of evils, as often the would-be settlers were paupers and incapables, who sold out their lands to speculators before they set foot on land. At present any *bona-fide* settler can "select" not more than 640 acres out of any unoccupied land, or leasehold pasture "run," and can become the absolute owner of his section by residence and small yearly payments.

The legislative power in New South Wales is vested in the governor, as representing the crown, and a parliament of two houses—an upper house (legislative council) of twenty-one members nominated by the crown, and a lower house of 102 elected members.

**Victoria** rose to importance in 1848 after the discovery of gold, and in 1854 received a constitution. The parliament is the same as that of New South Wales, except that the upper house is elected by voters having a high property qualification. The colony is divided into fourteen provinces, each of which sends three members to the legislative council. The members serve for six years, one third of them retiring triennially.

**South Australia**, originally a part of New South Wales, ob-



tained responsible government in 1856. The parliament consists of two elected houses. Members of the legislative council are elected for twelve years, six of the eighteen retiring every four years. The council is elected by the whole colony voting as one district. The lower house consists of forty-six members, elected for three years by manhood suffrage. The executive department consists of the governor and an executive council, comprising the cabinet and specially appointed ministers.

**Western Australia** was founded in 1829. Great tracts of land having at first been given to wealthy persons, the country for some time felt the need of laborers. These were in part supplied in 1850 by receiving the convicts which the other colonies refused.

There are two governing bodies—the legislative council, partly elected and partly appointed by the crown, by whom the local acts are passed, and the executive council of five official members, by whom they are administered.

**Queensland** was separated from New South Wales in 1859. Its constitution resembles that of the mother-colony. In 1833 this colony used its influence with England for the creation of a protectorate over the southern part of New Guinea.

**Tasmania** has a constitution similar to that of South Australia. The aborigines of this island have recently become extinct.

**New Zealand** consists of a group of islands 600 miles east of Australia. It was first made into a self-governing colony in 1852, each of the six provinces having an elective superintendent and a provincial council. In 1875 the legislative power was vested in the governor, appointed by the crown, and the general assembly of two chambers, one nominated by the crown and the other elected by the people. From 1843 to 1876 frequent wars occurred between the native Maoris and the white settlers over the possession of lands.

**Australian Federation.**—The last attempt at Australian federation was made by Sir Henry Parkes, the premier of New South Wales. A convention representing Victoria, Queensland, New South Wales, South Australia, Tasmania, West Australia, and New Zealand met in Sydney and drew up a constitution providing for a senate and a house of representatives composing a parliament that should assemble at least once every year. It placed the executive power in the hands of the governor-general as the queen's representative and provided for a supreme court and a uniform tariff. The protectionist opposition of Victoria and the free-trade opposition of New South Wales were temporarily withdrawn, and all seemed to be going well with the scheme.

In spite of the unanimous recommendation of the convention of Australian federation, difficulties appeared later in the way of a consummation of the scheme that seemed insuperable. New South Wales has always been regarded as the most loyal colony,

and one strongly in favor of free trade. The election of 1891, however, resulted in the defeat of Sir Henry Parkes, who represented this policy. His successful opponent, G. R. Dibbs, represents the protectionist and republican movement in the colony. Though the tariff played an important part in the contest, the idea of an Australian republic was the principal issue. The labor party hold the balance of power. Mr. Black, the labor leader, announced that he was not likely to favor the federation scheme. New Zealand also placed her parliament in the hands of the workingmen. This colony distinctly refused to enter the commonwealth, as fears were entertained by the workingmen that the scheme would involve support of the poorer colonies by the more prosperous ones.

The Australian colonies have lately suffered from a financial panic. All the banks in Brisbane failed during the summer of 1893. The Melbourne banks suffered terribly and one of the strongest banking institutions in Sydney had to close. It is said that one cause of the trouble is the leaving of the banks to headlong competition; there are three banks where one would suffice.

**SARAWAK** is a country on the northwest coast of Borneo, with a capital city of the same name. The rajahship of the country was held from 1839 to 1868 by Sir James Brooke, and since then by his nephew, Sir Charles Johnson Brooke. His authority is absolute, but is exercised with great wisdom. The rule of native chiefs and English officers is combined, and for many years the country has been very prosperous.

**THE SAMOAN OR NAVIGATOR'S ISLANDS** are a group in the Pacific ocean 2400 miles northeast of Australia, consisting of nine inhabited islands and several islets. The area is 1700 square miles and the population 26,000. The natives are superior to most Pacific islanders and many of them have embraced Christianity.

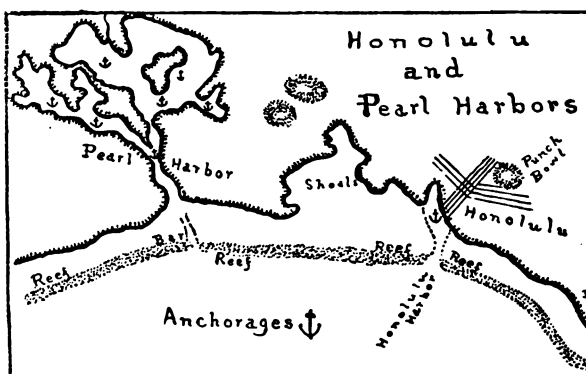
A treaty was drawn up in regard to Samoa in 1890 between England, Germany, and the United States. It makes Samoa neutral territory in which citizens of the three powers have equal rights; in other words, it is a joint protectorate. The government, on the executive side, is independent, the natives electing their own king. A foreign chief justice is provided for. A Swede has been appointed to this office by the king of Sweden and Norway, to whom the treaty delegates the power in final resort. Neither of the three nations making the treaty is allowed to exercise separate control over the islands or their government, and the sale or gift of intoxicating liquor to the natives is forbidden; also the alienation of their lands to foreigners. Malietoa was confirmed as king in 1889. Since then he has had much trouble on account of the intrigues of his old rival, Mataafa, to

obtain the throne. The government also has been mismanaged and the finances are in a bad condition.

In 1892 the United States secured a coaling station for its ships at Pago Pago harbor. Great Britain also has a coaling station there.

**HAWAII.**—The Hawaiian (or Sandwich) islands consist of a large island of Hawaii and five smaller ones, containing all together 6740 square miles of territory and a population of about 100,000. The position of the group, directly on the line of Pacific-ocean travel, gives it more importance than it would otherwise have. Honolulu, on the island of Oahu, is an important port visited by the vessels of all nations.

The natives in the early part of this century accepted Christianity and civilization rather more readily than the natives of other Pacific islands.



HONOLULU AND PEARL HARBORS.

habitants of Pacific islands. As a consequence European Americans settled there in large numbers. The sugar industry is the principal one in the country, is now nearly all in the hands of the Americans. Until lately, however, Hawaii has been a kingdom ruled by a native dynasty. King Kalakaua, who ascended the throne in 1870, died in 1891 and was succeeded by his son, Liliuokalani. There were three parties in the islands—the native, the American, and English—and the attempts of each of these for supremacy caused many broils.

In January, 1893, the queen decreed a new constitution which she aimed to make the native influence supreme in the government. The foreign element arose and deposed her, and a provisional government was organized. During the excitement, an armed force from the United States cruiser *Boston* was in the harbor.

lulu. The provisional government sent a commission to Washington to ask that the islands be annexed to the United States. Later Princess Kaiulani, heiress to the throne, came to this country to plead in her own behalf. In the meantime President Harrison sent a treaty of annexation to the senate and United States Minister Stevens raised the Stars and Stripes over the government building at Honolulu.

The treaty was withdrawn from the senate by President Cleveland and by order of Commissioner Blount, appointed by him, the United States flag was removed from the Hawaiian government building. The reason given by the president for this action was that, pending the investigation of Hawaiian affairs, it would not look well for a government as powerful as ours, and especially a republic, to resort to any means that bore the least resemblance to force.

There has been some talk of Great Britain or Japan obtaining the islands, but that is not very likely, as the American influence is too strong. The United States also controls Pearl harbor, the most important on the islands. The chief objection to annexation is that the population consists of a mixture of Europeans, Americans, natives, Chinese, and Japanese, the most of them totally unfit for American citizenship. It would therefore not be wise to admit them under the same arrangement as our present states. The United States will probably hold the islands as a protectorate.

### III. NORTH, CENTRAL, AND SOUTH AMERICA.

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#### Chapter XXV.

#### *UNITED STATES, CANADA, AND NEWFOUNDLAND.*

THE UNITED STATES, exclusive of Alaska, occupies the central belt of North America. In wealth and power it exceeds all other countries of the world, and in extent of territory it ranks fourth, having an area of 3,550,000 square miles. The entire coast line of the United States, including inlets and lake shores, is nearly equal to the distance around the world. Besides there are about 50,000 miles of river navigation. Over four fifths of the people are whites of European descent. The most numerous representatives of the colored races are the negroes, Chinese, and Indians.

**Government.**—The government of the United States is democratic under a constitution, since amended in several important features, adopted by the original thirteen states in the years 1787–90. Under this the government is vested in three great departments—the executive, the judicial, and the legislative.

I. The executive department comprises a president and vice-president, elected every fourth year. The vice-president has no executive function or authority, except in the case of the death, resignation, or removal by impeachment of the president, whom he succeeds for the unexpired portion of the four years' term. During the continuance of the president in the chair the vice-president is merely the president of the United States senate. In case of the death, resignation, or removal of both the president and vice-president the members of the cabinet succeed to the presidency in the following order: secretary of state, secretary of the treasury, secretary of war, attorney-general, postmaster-

general, secretary of the navy, secretary of the interior, secretary of agriculture. These cabinet advisers are appointed by the president, subject to the approval of the senate. They are the heads of the several executive departments created by congress from time to time. The president is also authorized to appoint, subject to the confirmation of the senate, such subordinate officials as may be provided for by law, under the several heads of departments, either at the capital or in the several states and territories. He also vetoes or approves of all acts passed by the United States congress; it requires a two-thirds vote of both houses of congress to pass an act over his veto.

In addition, the president is commander-in-chief of the army and navy of the United States, and of the militia of the several states when engaged in the national service. As he is held responsible for the official conduct of the several heads of departments, he may remove them at pleasure. He may grant reprieves and pardons for offences against the United States; he may make treaties with foreign powers, which must be approved by a two-thirds vote of the senate. In cases of extreme necessity he may call special sessions of congress. He may receive or refuse to receive representatives of foreign governments. All officers of the United States are commissioned by him. There is probably no other office in the world of equal dignity and responsibility. The present president is Grover Cleveland, who was inaugurated March 4, 1893.

(1) The secretary of state is the head of the department of state. He negotiates foreign treaties, issues instructions to ministers and other agents in foreign countries, receives communications from the officers of the territories, issues passports to citizens of the United States who wish to travel in foreign countries, presents to the president all foreign ministers, and represents the president in correspondence with foreign governments. The secretary conducts the foreign affairs of the government mainly through the *diplomatic service* and the *consular service*. The diplomatic service consists of ambassadors, envoys extraordinary and ministers plenipotentiary, and ministers resident. The duties of these three grades of officers are the same, the chief difference being in the rank and influence of the countries to which they are sent. The consular service includes about thirty consuls-general, some of whom are ministers-resident, and more than three hundred consuls. Their chief duties are to enforce the commercial laws and protect the rights of American citizens. The present secretary of state is Walter Q. Gresham.

(2) The secretary of the treasury is the head of the treasury department. He superintends the collection of the revenues, the coinage of money, the operation of the national banks, the conduct of the custom-houses, the inspection of steam-vessels, the management of the marine hospital, the maintenance of light-houses,

the operation of the life-saving service, the progress of the coast survey, the payment of the national debt, etc. The present secretary is John G. Carlisle.

(3) The secretary of war has charge of the land forces, under the direction of the president. He supervises the expenditure of money voted by congress for the improvement of rivers and harbors. The military academy at West Point is under his direction. The present secretary is Daniel S. Lamont.

(4) The secretary of the navy has control of all affairs relating to vessels of war, the naval forces, and naval operations. He has charge of the naval observatory at Washington and the United States naval academy at Annapolis. The naval department issues sailing charts, sailing directions, and other publications for the use of seamen. The present secretary is Hilary A. Herbert.

(5) The postmaster-general presides over the post-office department. He superintends the management of the post-offices and the carrying of the mails, and appoints all postmasters whose salaries are less than \$1000 each. Postmasters whose salaries exceed this sum are appointed by the president. The present postmaster-general is Wilson S. Bissell.

(6) The secretary of the interior is the chief officer of the interior department, in which are the bureaus of pensions, public lands, Indian affairs, patents, education, geological survey, census, and public documents. The present secretary is Hoke Smith.

(7) The attorney-general presides over the department of justice. He is the chief law officer of the government and the legal adviser of all the departments. The present attorney-general is Richard Olney.

(8) The agriculture department was organized by act of congress in 1889. The department collects and diffuses among the people useful information relating to agriculture and agricultural products, supervises the agricultural colleges, conducts experiments concerning farm and garden products, distributes seeds, looks after the forestry interests, receives and reports facts concerning the weather, etc. The present secretary is J. Sterling Morton.

II. The judiciary of the United States includes a supreme court, circuit courts, district courts, and a court of claims. The supreme court consists of a chief justice (Melville W. C. Fuller) and eight associate justices. The country is divided into nine judicial circuits, presided over by the supreme court judges. There is also a circuit judge in each circuit, who usually sits with the supreme court judge. The circuits are divided into districts (67 in number), each with a district judge. All the judges of the the United States courts are appointed by the president and confirmed by the senate, and serve for life, unless they resign or are removed.

III. The legislative department of the government embraces *the congress* of the United States, which consists of two houses,

senate and house of representatives. The senate is composed of two members from each state, elected for six years by the legislatures, one third of the entire number retiring every two years. This body confirms or rejects any of the appointments of the president, and approves or annuls treaties. It is prohibited from originating any financial or revenue law or part of law.

The United States house of representatives is elected directly by the people, the numbers being fixed after every decennial census. By the apportionment after the 1890 census the number was fixed at 356, on the basis of one member for each 174,895 inhabitants, provided that each state has at least one representative and that each new state shall be given representation in addition to the 356 specified. The members are elected every two years. The house originates all financial, revenue, and appropriation measures, and in all cases of impeachment of officers of the United States is the impeaching body, and the senate sits as a court to try the accused.

**States, Territories, etc.**—The states have a government that greatly resembles the federal government. Of course, the rights to coin money, impose duties on imports, make treaties with foreign powers, etc., are denied. Each state has a constitution and makes laws, which must not conflict with the constitution of the United States. Then there are county, city, and town bodies, each making regulations for its own local affairs. The town is considered the unit of our system, from which all the others are an outgrowth.

Congress organizes the public domain into territories, fixes their boundaries, and establishes their governments. The act of organization is passed as soon as the population is dense enough to require governmental authority. The governor is appointed by the president of the United States, with the consent of the United States senate, and serves for four years, unless removed. The principal territorial officers are appointed by the governor. The chief justice and associate justices are appointed by the president; the inferior courts are established by the territorial legislature. Territories are governed by the laws of congress, by the common law, and by the laws passed by the territorial legislatures. Each territory has a delegate in congress, who may serve on committees, etc., and engage in debate, but has no right to vote.

**Parties and Leaders.**—Until the last presidential election the voters of the country were divided pretty evenly between the Republican and Democratic parties. During the past ten years the winning party in presidential years has been placed in power only by a very small margin, and in several cases has lacked not only a majority but a plurality of the popular vote. For over thirty years, or since the first election of Lincoln, no third party has been strong enough to elect a single presidential elector. The



importance of the third-party movement, then, will be seen when it is stated that Weaver and Field had 22 electors, Harrison and Reid 145, and Cleveland and Stevenson 277. The principal issues in this campaign were, first, the tariff. The Republicans defended the McKinley tariff bill, and the principle behind it of protection to home industries; the Democrats said that protection was only another name for monopoly and special privileges at the expense of the taxpayers, and advocated a low tariff, that is, a tariff for revenue. Another question that was made prominent was in regard to federal control of elections. The People's party favored a low tariff, free silver, the control of trusts and monopolies, etc.

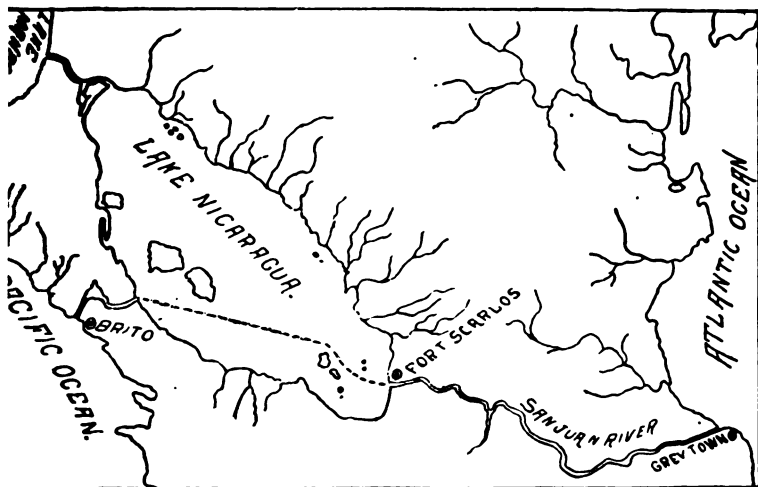
The most prominent Republican senators in the fifty-second congress were Messrs. Wolcott, Hawley, Hale, Frye, Hoar, Chandler, Hiscock, Sherman, Quay, and Aldrich; on the Democratic side the leaders were Messrs. Palmer, Voorhees, Carlisle, Blackburn, Gorman, Vest, McPherson, Mills, and Vilas. In the house the leaders on the Republican side were Messrs. Reed, Lodge, Boutelle, Burrows, and others; and on the Democratic side, Messrs. Breckenridge, Wilson, Cockran, Springer, etc. Charles F. Crisp (Dem.) of Georgia was the speaker.

**Pan-American Congress.**—This assembly was called by the United States Oct. 2, 1889, and closed its session in April, 1890. There were representatives of eighteen countries, representing 100,000,000 people. Many matters of mutual international interest were considered. An international railroad was suggested, the connecting South American line to run from Cartagena, in Colombia, up the Magdalena river valley, and along the eastern slope of the Andes, penetrating as far as Cuzco, Peru, where it would connect with the existing South American system. It was proposed to form an international monetary union, with an international coin as legal tender, and to create an international bank, under United States charter, with branches in all the countries represented. Reciprocity treaties were recommended. Action has since been taken to carry out most of these recommendations. At the conclusion of the conference all of the delegates signed a treaty of arbitration, which announces that no war shall be declared until Pan-American arbitration has failed, except where immediate action is necessary.

**The Nicaragua Canal.**—The work of building a ship canal across Nicaragua is now in progress under the direction of Americans, and some of the most far-seeing of our citizens have urged the United States government to guarantee the principal and interest at four per cent of an issue of \$100,000,000 of canal company bonds to pay for the work. The importance this canal will be to commerce renders it very desirable that our government should control it. The great gain to ocean commerce will be in reducing the distance, and hence the expense of carrying cargoes, to different points. The passage from New York to San Fran-

cisco through the canal would be 8267 miles shorter than by the Straits of Magellan route; to Melbourne 2998 miles shorter, and to Honolulu 6878 miles shorter.

The cutting of a waterway across the isthmus is probably the most important work for the benefit of commerce ever undertaken



ROUTE OF THE NICARAGUA CANAL.

by man. With this great work completed the mind's eye sees the great fleets of Europe and Asia, Australia, the East Indies, the Hawaiian islands, the republics of the eastern and western shores of North and South America, moving through this electrically lighted gateway to all the seas of the earth.

**The Bering Sea Dispute.**—The sealing question is one that has been in dispute between the United States government and Great Britain for several years. On account of the depredations of Canadian sealers outside of the three-mile limit from land fixed by treaties as the space within which the United States had control, the destruction of the industry was threatened. But the United States, in this special case, claimed that the exclusive rights to Bering sea exercised by Russia passed to our government when Alaska was purchased. Great Britain of course denied such exclusive jurisdiction. Much correspondence concerning the case passed between Mr. Blaine and Lord Salisbury, and finally a close season was declared in 1891, the vessels of both nations being sent to Bering sea to enforce the conditions of the agreement.

The matter was referred to an international court of arbitration, which was in session in Paris for some months.

**Ballot Reform, Reciprocity, Civil Service.**—During the past three years ballot reform based on the Australian system has been adopted in many states. The object has been to guard the voters against intimidation by securing the necessary secrecy, and to prevent corrupt elections.

Since the approval of the tariff act Oct. 1, 1890, treaties of reciprocity have been entered into with various countries. By these treaties many articles from the United States are admitted into these countries free or at a reduced rate of duty. Treaties have been made with Brazil, Santo Domingo, Salvador, Nicaragua, Honduras, Guatemala, Austria-Hungary; with Spain, applicable to Cuba and Porto Rico, and Great Britain applicable to British Guiana, Trinidad and Tobago, Barbados, the Leeward islands and the Windward islands (excepting the island of Granada), and to Jamaica and its dependencies. It may be stated here that through the efforts of our representatives abroad Germany, Italy, Austria, Denmark, and France removed the restrictions upon the importation of American pork.

Civil-service reform is making considerable progress, in spite of the politicians, who believe that "to the victors belong the spoils." The most prominent advocate of this reform was the late George William Curtis, and he lived to see it well under way. The principle is that when a good man is placed in an office, exclusive of cabinet officers, heads of departments, etc., he should be allowed to remain there, no matter how the elections go. Many places are now filled by competitive examination, and from these the persons cannot be removed for party reasons. President Cleveland, during his first term, advanced the reform as much as the politicians would allow him, and many thousand places were put under the civil-service rules during President Harrison's administration.

**Chinese Exclusion—Russian Treaty.**—Early in 1893 the United States supreme court declared constitutional the Geary act of 1892, providing for the registration and exclusion of Chinese; those who refuse to register to be sent back to China. This law has been denounced everywhere by pulpit and press as a violation of treaty rights. As no money is appropriated to send back the large number of Chinese now in this country, the law is not likely soon to be carried into effect.

The extradition treaty with Russia, adopted early in 1893, has also had its share of condemnation. As the United States will not allow any persons to be extradited unless satisfactory proof of crime is offered, there really does not seem to be much chance of injustice resulting from this treaty.

**World's Fair—Public Lands—Finances.**—The Columbian exposition, in commemoration of the four hundredth anniversary

of the discovery of America by Columbus, was opened at Chicago May 1, 1893. It is the most extensive fair ever held, and there are evidences that it will be the most successful one.

During the year 1890 about 15,000,000 acres of land were obtained from the Indians, including the Sioux reservation in South Dakota. One of the first acts of the Cleveland administration was the conclusion of the purchase of the Cherokee strip, which is added to Oklahoma territory.

In the summer of 1893 much concern was felt in business and financial circles on account of the small amount of gold in the treasury. The disappearance of gold was attributed by many to the silver act of 1890, by which the government purchases a specified amount of silver each month, and loud calls were heard for its repeal. Money became scarce, stocks shrunk alarmingly, and there were many bank and business failures. President Cleveland called a special session of congress to consider the matter Aug. 7.

**Other Events.**—Early in 1892 the Louisiana Lottery Company decided not to continue its business in the United States, on account of the exclusion of its matter from the United States mails. Louisiana was not the only state in which there was rejoicing. The trouble in New Orleans with the Italians called forth much discussion as to the best means of preventing undesirable immigrants from coming to this country. It transpires that several nations of Europe, if not paying the expenses across the ocean of their paupers and criminals, have at least given them great encouragement to come. The immigration question was again brought up in a painful form when a vessel from Hamburg with cholera cases aboard weighed anchor in New York harbor in the summer of 1892. Owing to efforts of local authorities, the disease did not find a lodgment on shore.

\* The fifty-second congress (1891-3) passed an automatic car-

\* The fifty-first congress (1889-91) passed the McKinley tariff act, making extensive changes in the rates of duty on articles imported; a bill to increase the pensions of certain soldiers and sailors who are totally helpless from injuries received or diseases contracted while in the service; a bill to protect trade and commerce against unlawful restraints and monopolies; an international copyright bill permitting foreigners to take American copyright on the same basis as American citizens, (1) when the nation of the foreigner permits copyright to American citizens on substantially the same basis as to its own citizens; (2) when the nation of the foreigner gives to American citizens copyright privileges similar to those provided for in this bill; and (3) when the nation of the foreigner is a party to an international agreement providing for reciprocity in copyright, by the terms of which agreement the United States may become a party thereto at its pleasure. All books copyrighted under this act must be printed from type set in the United States or plates made therefrom. The silver bill, also passed by this congress, provides that bullion to the amount of four and one half million ounces shall be purchased monthly, or so much as offered; that notes shall be redeemed in gold or silver on demand; and requires the monthly coinage into dollars of 2,000,000 ounces of the bullion purchased, until July 1, 1891. The federal elections, or force bill, providing for U. S. marshals at the polls in the various districts on the petition of a specified number of citizens, was introduced and strongly favored by President Harrison. The opposition was so great, however, that it failed of passage.

coupler bill; an immigration law making additional restrictions and adding three classes to those excluded under the previous law; a quarantine bill, increasing the power of federal officers; the Chinese exclusion act; to grant an American registry to two Inman line steamships; for the completion of the allotments of lands to the Cheyennes and Arapahoes; to make the secretary of agriculture eligible to the presidential succession; closing the World's fair on Sunday; for the replacement of civilian Indian agents by army officers. A large number of bills reducing the tariff that were passed by the house were shelved in the senate. The senate ratified a Bering-sea arbitration treaty, and extradition treaties with Russia and other countries. The Hawaii annexation treaty was not considered. The Nicaragua canal bill failed of passage.

**CANADA.**—The country was discovered by John Cabot in 1497. The French claimed it by reason of the discoveries of Verrazano and Roberval, and gave it the name which it still bears, mistaking the Indian word Kanata (huts) for the name of the country. France retained possession until 1763, when Canada was ceded to Great Britain by the treaty of Paris. In 1790 the province was divided into Upper and Lower Canada, the divisions corresponding to those parts occupied by English and French settlers, respectively. They are now known as the provinces of Ontario and Quebec. Each province had a governor and an executive council, a legislative council appointed by the crown, and a representative assembly appointed by the people. In spite of the defects of the government, and the many disputes between the provinces on account of diverse interests, aims, and languages, they remained loyal to Great Britain during the war of 1812-15.

The evils complained of by Lower (French) Canada led to a rebellion in 1837, and opened the eyes of the home government to the need of reform. A single government was instituted under a parliament and a responsible ministry in 1840. The desire of the other colonies to share the independence of the Canadas led to the confederation with them in 1867 of New Brunswick and Nova Scotia. The territory of the Hudson Bay company was added to the domain in 1869 and the province of Manitoba created. British Columbia joined the federation in 1871 and Prince Edward Island in 1873. So far Newfoundland has preferred to remain independent, although pressure has been brought to bear upon it to get it to join the federation. Canada at present embraces a much larger territory than the United States, but the inhabited and cultivated portion is only a comparatively narrow strip stretching for 4000 miles across the continent. The northern portion is cold and barren, and of small account as the habitation of civilized man.

**Government.**—The executive authority in Canada is vested in the sovereign of Great Britain and Ireland, and carried on by a

governor-general (appointed by the crown) and a privy council. The laws are made by a parliament of two houses. The members of the senate are appointed for life by the governor-general from the several provinces. Members of the lower house are elected by the people for five years. The British government exercises the right of supervision of foreign relations, and through the governor-general over the laws passed by the colonial legislature.

Each of the seven provinces has a separate parliament and administration, with the executive power in the hands of a lieutenant-governor. They make their own local laws and conduct their own local affairs. The laws passed, however, must not conflict with those of the central government.

**Parties, Men, and Measures.**—There are two distinct parties in Canada,—the Conservative and Liberal,—with some other smaller factions. The Conservatives have been noted for their professed attachment to Great Britain and their high protection policy. While many of the Liberals desire to see the union with Great Britain preserved, some of them consider it as altogether against the best interests of Canada and openly advocate annexation to the United States.

The great leader of the Conservatives was Sir John Macdonald, premier until his death, in 1891. It was mainly through his efforts that Canadian union was effected, and in the last ten years of his life he sought to build up an independent, economic community by subsidizing railroads, protective tariffs, and assistance to immigration. But the people found out that they were paying dearly for this, as the high tariff cut them off from their natural market, the United States, and a large proportion of the immigrants that were helped to come to Canada deserted them on the first opportunity, and went over to their prosperous and powerful neighbor on the south.

The election of March 5, 1891, brought out the fact that the exterior relations of the English-speaking countries are beginning more and more to dominate their internal affairs. Sir John Macdonald and Sir Charles Tupper appealed to the Canadians for a majority in favor of maintaining the imperial relations, and went so far as to stigmatize as traitors his opponents who suggested a union with the United States as a possibility. Sir John answered the demand for more liberal commercial relations by advocating limited reciprocity with the United States, while his opponents favored full reciprocity. Although the election gave Sir John a small majority it was considered as a moral defeat. The Conservatives shortly after suffered another heavy blow from the official corruption that was shown to exist.

Hon. J. J. C. Abbott became premier, on the death of Sir John Macdonald, in 1891. He had been a leader of the Conservative branch of the senate, and announced on taking office that the policy of the late premier would be adhered to. A commission,

consisting of Sir Charles Tupper, Sir John Thompson, and George E. Foster was appointed to arrange for reciprocity with the United States, but at Mr. Blaine's request the conference was postponed. Later the United States specified that, if reciprocity were adopted, it must be on the lines laid down by the American tariff policy. As this would force Canada to discriminate against the trade of Great Britain, it virtually ended the matter for several years at least. The fact remains, however, that a tariff wall of 4000 miles between nations that want to trade with each other cannot be maintained many years longer. Prof. Goldwin Smith, who probably knows more about the histories of England, the United States, and Canada than any other man living, has written a book in which he holds that Canada's position of dependence cannot henceforth benefit either England or herself, and that a friendly separation would benefit both.

The most important act of the seventh parliament prorogued by Lord Stanley,\* the governor-general in September, 1891, was the making of the supreme court the interpreter of the constitution, thus doing away with a fruitful cause of disputes. The Canadian census of 1891 was a great disappointment. The population was found to be only 4,828,344—a gain of only about a half a million in ten years, when it ought to have been at least two million. While in that time New England has gained twenty per cent, New Brunswick and the other maritime provinces have lost. Though Canada's principal industry is agriculture, the gain in population in the interior provinces has been almost exclusively in the cities.

Considerable friction has always existed between the provinces because a large part of the population being of French origin and language, profess a different religion from the English-speaking Canadians, viz., the Roman Catholic. In 1890 an attempt was made to pass a law through the Dominion parliament abolishing the use of the French language in the Northwest territories. It was finally decided to leave it to the legislatures to determine whether they would use that language or not. Manitoba, following this lead, abolished the French language in its proceedings and did away with separate schools.

The question of imperial federation, that is, forming a closer union between the different parts of the British empire, is one

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\* The earl of Aberdeen became governor-general of the Dominion of Canada in the fall of 1893. He is a middle-aged Scotchman, who was lord lieutenant of Ireland during Mr. Gladstone's former term as premier. In that position he won the respect and love of the Irish people by his good sense and philanthropic efforts. Lord Aberdeen has resided some time in Canada, and so has considerable acquaintance with its affairs. In politics he is a Liberal. The new governor-general has also made a study of the United States, and it is said that his policy will be to promote friendly relations with our country. The head of the Canadian ministry is Sir John Thompson, who has had a difficult time trying to keep peace between the factions who have declared themselves for or against Mr. Gladstone's home-rule policy.

that closely concerns Canada. This would include two things—(1) a customs union and (2) a union for war. The first appears to be impossible; the latter may be effected in time.

**NEWFOUNDLAND.**—Since 1855 Newfoundland has had an assembly elected by household suffrage, and a small legislative council appointed by the governor, who is nominated by the British crown. The executive power is in the hands of the ministry, which is responsible to the representative assembly.

The majority of the people gain their livelihood by fishing. The French occupy a portion of the shore, and the Newfoundlanders have long demanded the extinction of the French right to lobster and other fishing there, but up to this time have not succeeded in securing a change. An offer was made to submit the question to arbitration, but the islanders refused to have it so referred and the French declined to discuss the question. The Newfoundlanders claim that they suffer by their relation with Great Britain. For instance, after the British-Portuguese dispute over Africa, Portugal refused to buy their codfish. There is a strong movement on the island for annexation to the United States. In 1891, the Newfoundland government having given the United States privileges in the island that were denied to Canada, the arrangement was defeated in England through the direct influence of Canada.



## Chapter XV.

### *SPAIN'S FORMER DOMINION—MEXICO, CENTRAL AMERICA, SANTO DOMINGO, HAITI.*

**Spain's Former Dominion.**—A large number of the countries of North, Central, and South America were formerly under Spanish rule. After the discovery of America by Columbus religious zeal and the love of gold caused the Spaniards to extend their dominion over a great part of the Western Hemisphere. Cuba, Haiti, and other West Indian islands were occupied, and, from these, expeditions were sent out to the continents, north and south. Mexico was conquered in 1521, and Peru ten years later; Florida was colonized in 1565 and New Mexico in 1582, and Santa Fé, the second oldest town in the United States, built. Previous to this California had been explored as far north as the present border of Oregon. At the close of the sixteenth century the Spaniards held the West Indies, Mexico, Yucatan, and Florida.

In South America Buenos Ayres (founded in 1525 and then destroyed by the Indians) was finally settled in 1580. The whole of the country from the mouth of the La Plata to the Pacific ocean, including Paraguay, formed until 1776 a part of the viceroyalty of Peru. Many towns were founded along the coasts as ports and places of trade, and still others in the interior, near the rich silver mines of Mexico and Peru.

Spain's colonial policy was selfish and oppressive, very little regard being paid to the rights of the natives or the Spanish settlers. Therefore, when her power in Europe declined, they revolted, one after another, and gained their independence. The greatest name connected with the struggle of the Spanish colonies for independence early in this century is that of Simon Bolivar, who deserves to rank among the foremost heroes of the world. Cuba and Porto Rico are all that remain of Spain's great colonial domain in America. From 1868 to 1878 Cuba\* made a desperate attempt to secure independence, but without success.

**MEXICO.**—Adjoining the United States on the south is a republic that is destined to play a large part in the history of this continent. The building of railroads and the growth of commercial intercourse are vastly increasing the importance of the repub-

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\* In August, 1898, the Spanish government appointed Gen. E. Calleja governor-general of Cuba to fill the vacancy caused by the death of Gen. Alejandro Arias.

lic in our eyes. The country is divided into twenty-seven states, one federal district, and one territory (Lower California).

During the period of Spanish occupation the institutions of Spain were gradually introduced, but the Creoles and Indians were never satisfied under Spanish rule. The first revolt was led by Hidalgo, who is called the father of his country. In 1820, a revolution in Spain gave opportunity for another uprising by Don Augustin Iturbide, a native Mexican and colonel in the army. The independence of Mexico was proclaimed Feb. 24, 1821. Eight months later Iturbide was made emperor. Dissensions arose, and in 1822 Santa Anna proclaimed a republic. Iturbide abdicated a few months later. In 1824 a constitution was adopted, much like that of the United States. Successive revolutions followed, until in 1835 Santa Anna was made president and dictator.

Texas, which contained a great many settlers from the United States, refusing to recognize the new order of things, Santa Anna tried to coerce that state. The result of the struggle was that he was deposed from the presidency, but again became president in 1844. The war over the annexation of Texas to the United States continued about two years, and ended by Mexico ceding New Mexico and California to the northern republic.

The country was in a constant turmoil, revolution following revolution, until 1861, when Benito Juarez became president. He introduced many reforms, but brought about a direct issue with the church party by divorcing church and state and appropriating church property to the state. The government was also heavily in debt to foreign bondholders, especially in Spain, France, and England, who clamored for their money. These countries sent forces to Mexico. The claims of the English and Spanish were satisfied, but Napoleon III. pretended not to be, and the French forces remained. Then Maximilian, brother of Emperor Francis Joseph of Austria, was induced to accept the imperial crown of Mexico. Napoleon thought he could establish an empire of the "Latin race" in America. Affairs went from bad to worse; the Juarist revolutionary forces were successful in several engagements, and Napoleon found that the maintenance of his hold in Mexico was too expensive. The United States also protested vigorously against the presence of a French army in that country. A few months after the French withdrew Maximilian was captured and shot. Thus ended the last attempt to establish a foreign empire in America. After the fall of the empire Juarez again became president.

**The Administration of Diaz.**—President Porfirio Diaz was born in 1830, and took part in the military operations that led to the triumph of Juarez. He was an unsuccessful candidate for president in 1867, and in 1872 and 1876 led revolutions against the government. In 1877 he was elected president to fill the unexpired term of the fugitive president, Lerdo. He was re-elected.

successively in 1884, 1888, and 1892. Many reforms have been made during his administration, and there has been greater security than was ever known before under the republic. The



PRES. PORFIRIO DIAZ, OF MEXICO.

public moneys have in the main been used honestly. The greater security to property has caused foreign capital to flood in, developing the country's resources and increasing its prosperity.

**Government.**—Mexico is a federal government, the states being bound together in one body politic by fundamental and constitutional law. Each state has its own legislature, or "state congress," and its own governor, and possesses in theory full power of government with regard to local affairs. The federal congress is composed of two houses—a senate of two members from each state and a house, the number of whose members is determined on the basis of population.

## CENTRAL AMERICA.

Under this head may be classed the five small republics of Guatemala, Honduras, San Salvador, Nicaragua, and Costa Rica, and a strip of territory on the Caribbean sea, known as British Honduras. After their liberation from Spain the countries of Central America formed the Central American confederation, but in 1839 Honduras and Nicaragua withdrew, followed by Costa Rica in 1840 and Guatemala in 1847. In 1872 Costa Rica, Guatemala, and San Salvador formed a Central American union, for the purpose of maintaining peace in the several states, and securing each a republican form of government; but it did not last.

**GUATEMALA** is governed by a president and an assembly of one house. The president, elected once in six years, has almost absolute control of political affairs. The president is General José M. R. Barrios.

**HONDURAS** has a president and a legislature elected by the people. The president has control of the executive power, subject only to the supervision of the council. The president is General Leiva.

**SAN SALVADOR.**—This republic has a congress of two houses elected by the people; also a president, who should, according to the constitution, be elected every four years, but who is usually placed in office by a revolution or by the choice of the army. The president is General Carlos Ezeta.

**NICARAGUA.**—The country has become more important than any other in Central America on account of the canal (now building) through its territory to connect the Atlantic and Pacific oceans. There is a legislature of two houses elected by universal suffrage. Revolution, however, is a frequent means of changing administrations. In May, 1893, a revolution was directed against the government of Dr. Roberto Sacasa, the president. During the disturbance the United States sent a war vessel to the country to guard the canal property.

**COSTA RICA** is governed by a congress of one chamber, chosen by electoral assemblies representing the people, and a president elected in the same manner. The president is J. J. Rodriguez.

**An Attempt at Federation.**—In recognition of the fact that in a union of states lay whatever growth and prosperity the country had enjoyed in the past, a federal constitution for the five republics, establishing the Central American Republic, was adopted, and was to have gone into effect in September, 1890. Indications pointed to a speedy consummation of the scheme, when the sudden breaking out of hostilities between states concerned gave the death-blow to all immediate hopes. Since then there have

been numerous revolutions and conflicts between states. These little republics need a strong hand to keep the turbulent elements in check.

**SANTO DOMINGO.**—The Dominican republic occupies the eastern and larger half of the island of Haiti. It was first settled by the Spaniards under Columbus, and became an important Spanish colony. The people threw off the Spanish yoke in 1821; from 1822 to 1844 the country formed a part of the Haitian republic. The Spaniards again occupied the country from 1863–65, but were expelled by the people. The request in 1871 for annexation to the United States was refused. The president is Gen. Ulises Heureaux. The people are mostly of mixed African, Spanish, and Indian descent, and use the Spanish language instead of the corrupt French of Haiti. On March 1, 1893, the Santo Domingo Improvement Company, of New York, assumed control of the resources of the republic, transferred to them by Holland bankers. This means that they will collect customs, control the finances, etc. More stability in the government is assured, and hence there will be greater prosperity.

**HAITI.**—The western portion of the island of Haiti, forming this republic, was wrested from the Spaniards by the French in 1665. From this period until 1790 it was the most flourishing of the West Indian colonies. The black people rebelled, proclaimed their independence in 1800, and expelled the French three years later. Since then there have been many revolutions and a sort of elective military government under various leaders. In theory it is a constitutional republic, with a president and an assembly of two houses, but in practice it is a despotism ruled by the person who gains control of the army. The president is Gen. L. M. F. Hippolyte.

## Chapter XXV.

### **SOUTH AMERICAN FEDERATIONS—BRAZIL, ARGENTINE, VENEZUELA, COLOMBIA.**

**BRAZIL.**—In extent of territory Brazil ranks fifth among the nations of the world, but its resources are very poorly developed for so large a country. All the South American republics, except Chile, border on this great state, which occupies more than two fifths of the entire South American continent.

Brazil was discovered by Pincon, a companion of Columbus, in the year 1500. In the next year the Portuguese commander, Pedro Alvarez Cabrel, was driven by adverse winds so far from his track that he landed on the coast of Brazil, and took formal possession of it in the name of his sovereign. The country was gradually colonized by the Portuguese, who formed a settlement at Rio Janeiro in 1567. The Dutch and Spaniards at different times attacked and destroyed some of their settlements, but the Portuguese still retained possession of the country. When Napoleon invaded Portugal and announced that the house of Braganza had ceased to reign (1807), the Portuguese sovereign resolved to take refuge in Brazil, where he and the royal family arrived the next year.

In 1815 Brazil was raised to the rank of a kingdom, and was consolidated with the mother-country, the monarchy being styled the United Kingdom of Portugal, Brazil, and Algarve. In 1821 the king, John VI., returned to Portugal, leaving his son Dom Pedro as regent. Many Brazilians desiring separation from the mother country, Dom Pedro proclaimed the independence of Brazil in 1822, and assumed the title of emperor. In consequence of insurrections the emperor abdicated in 1831 in favor of his son, Dom Pedro II., a minor, who was crowned in 1841. Among the chief events of his long and prosperous reign were the wars with Buenos Ayres in 1851 and Paraguay in 1865-70, which established Brazil as a great power in that quarter of the globe and secured free navigation on the whole river system of the La Plata. In spite of the fact that Dom Pedro was a wise and enlightened ruler, who encouraged education, agriculture, and commerce, events so shaped themselves as to cause his downfall.

One of the causes of the overthrow of Dom Pedro was the dislike of the church for his liberal ideas. Another cause was the dissatisfaction with his progressive policy in opening up the country.

His scheme for building railroads to connect the coast with the interior provoked hostility among the people; for he had to employ foreign talent for all the responsible places, and the less enlightened accused him of wasting public money on Americans and Englishmen. He also had to reconcile two entirely different civilizations. The interior country was almost entirely agricultural, where vast tracts were worked by slave labor. Then there was a legion of poor whites, restless, and leading a gypsy life in the wilderness. In contrast and clashing with these classes was the population of the sea-coast towns—ambitious for the graces and dignities of life and anxious chiefly for a government that should not be troublesome to support. The hardier natives of the southern provinces increased the difficulties of the emperor by openly declaring that they would have a republic even at the cost of secession, though they were willing to wait until his death before beginning the struggle for independence. With Dom Pedro ever ready and waiting to abolish slavery in the face of the powerful interior land owners, we may imagine that the throne of the last American monarch was not a bed of roses.

The direct cause of his deposition was the failure of his health and the regency of his daughter, Donna Isabella, and her husband, who did many things to fan the smoldering discontent. The final act came when she signed the law completing the emancipation of 1,300,000 slaves. In revenge for this the planters overthrew the imperial government, dethroned the emperor, and established a republic of twenty states, under the name of the United States of Brazil.

Most of the men under Marshal Fonseca, who organized the provisional government in November, 1889, were hardly fit to start a new government under way. Fonseca himself was a soldier, a suitable leader for a military dictatorship, a perfect type of a South American "president" of a republic. The first acts of the new government were extremely unwise. They made violent changes in the government of provinces and great cities, banished prominent republicans, doubled the standing army, abridged the freedom of the press, and performed other high-handed acts. They were about to proclaim a constitution, but were brought to a halt by the fact that England and the United States would not recognize such a one as they proposed. Then they allowed the people to elect representatives to a constitutional convention. The main features of the constitution finally adopted are given below.

**Brazil's New Constitution.**—The form of government adopted by the Brazilian congress February 24, 1891, is very similar to that of the United States. The constitution makes a perpetual union between the former provinces, or states, as they are now called. The federal government has exclusive power over taxes on imports, general stamp taxes, taxes on federal posts and the telegraph,

the creation and maintenance of custom-houses, and the establishment of banks of issue. It cannot interfere with the internal affairs of the states except in cases of foreign invasion or invasion from one state into another.

The states have exclusive power to levy taxes upon land, industries, professions, and merchandise of their own production, and they may tax goods that are imported for consumption within their own borders. Each state is governed by a constitution and laws adopted by it, provided they do not conflict with the federal constitution. All powers and rights not denied the states by that constitution may be exercised by them.

The legislative power is vested in a congress composed of a chamber of deputies and a senate. The chamber is composed of deputies from the federal district (the capital) and from the states in the proportion of one for 70,000 inhabitants. The senate consists of three members from each state and three from the federal district. The deputies and senators are elected directly by the people.

The executive power is vested in the president, elected for a term of four years. His powers are similar to those of the president of the United States. The cabinet is also similar to our own.

The judicial power is exercised by a supreme federal court composed of fifteen judges and as many federal judges distributed throughout the country as congress may create. The jurisdiction corresponds with that of our own federal courts.

Fonseca soon demonstrated his unfitness for a civil ruler. Señor Barbosa, his minister of finance, granted a monopoly to three banks, and they by the issue of cheap paper money brought the country nearly to the verge of ruin. Congress saw the necessity of restraining Fonseca, and early in the fall of 1891 the battle between them began. The climax came in November, when he dissolved the national congress, declared Rio Janeiro in a state of siege, and prepared to move against the disaffected province of Rio Grande do Sul. At this point Fonseca was forced to resign at the demand of the army and navy, and Vice-president Floriano Peixotto became president in his stead. He still holds the office.

President Peixotto has not used his power with the highest wisdom. One of his very first acts was to proclaim that all governors who supported the ex-dictator Fonseca should be deposed as traitors to the constitution. The attempt to enforce this led to riots and bloodshed in several provinces. The country still suffers severely from the financial mismanagement of Fonseca's rule.

**ARGENTINE REPUBLIC.**—This great country is next to Brazil in size among South American states. For nearly two centuries after its occupation by the Spaniards it was governed by the *viceroys of Peru*. The war for independence began about 1810,



and in 1816 the representatives of several provinces met, renounced their allegiance to the king of Spain, and founded a republic under the name of La Plata.

For some time after this the country was afflicted by civil wars between the parties striving for the mastery. Gen. Rosas was the leader of the Federalists, who opposed a strong central government as advocated by the Unitarians. He was made dictator in 1835 and maintained his power until 1852, in spite of the numerous revolts which his insane and brutal tyranny aroused against him. Rosas was defeated and driven into exile by the forces of Brazil, Paraguay, and Gen. Urquiza, governor of the province of Entre-Rios. Urquiza was made "provisional director" by an assembly of the provincial governors, and a congress was assembled which adopted the present constitution in 1853. Under this Urquiza was made president.

The fact that Buenos Ayres had overthrown the provisional government set up by Urquiza after the flight of Rosas caused civil wars, in which Buenos Ayres was successful, and her general, Bartolome Mitre, was elected president for six years, from October, 1862, and the capital of the confederation was at the same time transferred from Parana to Buenos Ayres. Sarmiento, elected president in 1868, and Avellaneda, in 1874, both peacefully ended their terms of office. The next president was Gen. Roca.

The Argentine Republic of to-day is practically a European commercial colony, having been largely developed by European capital and enterprise. England, France, Germany, and Italy absolutely control the commerce of the Plata. In trade, politics, social life, and popular amusements the people are progressive. The republic comprises fourteen states and nine territorial provinces, covering 1,125,086 square miles, with varied climate and inexhaustible agricultural, mineral, and forest resources.

A revolution occurred in July, 1890, against President Juarez Celman's administration, which was run in the interests of speculators and gamblers. In order to supply a lack of money the government resorted to the issue of irredeemable paper currency. To make matters worse, the suspension of specie payments by the banks was legalized, and the irredeemable paper was made a legal tender for debts and customs duties. Then came the disclosure of an illegal issue of \$35,000,000 in paper from different banks, in which the government was directly implicated. When the president attempted to control the election of his successor, all hopes of reform except by revolution were abandoned.

The revolt was led by the army, and severe fighting occurred in the streets of Buenos Ayres. Abandoned by his principal ministers, Celman was forced to resign, and vice-president Pelligrini became president. The new government suspended the payment of gold for two years, and introduced economy into the affairs of

the nation. It will be a long time, however, before the country will recover from the financial mismanagement and dishonesty of the Celman government. Señor Saeng-Pena, an able man, possessing the confidence of the country, became president in 1892.

**Government.**—The government is a federal republic; the country is divided into fourteen states. There is a president and a vice-president, and a congress of two houses. The senate is composed of two members from each of the states and the chamber of deputies, the members of which are chosen on the general ticket, as we elect presidential electors. Half of the members retire every two years. The constitution is modelled closely after that of the United States.

VENEZUELA occupies the northern coast of the continent, and is well watered by the Orinoco and other rivers. The origin of the name is peculiar. When the Spaniards first visited the country they noticed the houses of the natives built on piles for safety, owing to the periodic overflow of the rivers, especially the Orinoco. From a fancied resemblance of these villages to Venice, they called them Little Venice, or Venezuela.

Bolívar conquered the Spaniards and entered Caracas in 1820. Venezuela seceded from Colombia in 1831, and adopted a constitution modeled after that of the United States. Even the number of states was originally the same—thirteen. The republic was almost constantly disturbed by warring factions from 1848 to 1863, when Puerto Cabello, the leader of the insurgents, surrendered to the government. In December of that year a provisional constitution was adopted giving the people entire personal freedom, the freedom of the press, and many other privileges. Slavery, capital punishment, and banishment were abolished.

The constitution, as amended in 1864, provides for the election of the president by the people voting by states, or, in case no legal choice is made, by the congress voting by states. He holds office for four years, beginning on the 20th of February; he appoints his ministers, who vacate office with him. The congress consists of a senate of two members from each state, and a house apportioned according to population. The supreme court corresponds to that of the United States. The states which form the union reciprocally acknowledge each other's rights to self-government, declare themselves equal as political units, and reserve to themselves all sovereign rights not expressly delegated to the central government. The peculiarity of the Venezuelan government is the jealousy always shown by the states for the federal authority. Even in cases where the peace of the state is endangered by internal disputes, the general government must not secure peace by the use of the army. The federal courts cannot enforce their decrees without the aid of the states, and the latter may collect the federal revenue and refuse to account for it.

The president's veto is not conclusive unless sustained by a majority of the legislatures of the states.

**Recent Events in Venezuela.**—The dispute between Venezuela and Great Britain in regard to the British Guiana boundary involves possession of the mouth of the Orinoco and its immense delta, the gateway to trade with the northern countries of South America. Ex-President Guzman Blanco was sent as ambassador to London, but failed to effect a settlement, and the strained relations between the two countries continued even after the inauguration in 1890 of the new president, Señor Andruza Palacio. The diplomatic relations that were broken off under Blanco were re-established, and Venezuela expressed a willingness to submit the matter to arbitration. Later Great Britain seized Port Barima, absorbed territory even west of that point, and laid claim to land entering into the very heart of the republic.

A bill of rights was adopted in 1891, guaranteeing personal and religious liberty to the citizens. Among the provisions are the abolition of the death penalty, and the right of free travel without a passport. Any citizen over the age of eighteen may vote.

According to the constitution, when President Palacio's term of office expired in February, 1892, he was ineligible to re-election. As he showed no signs of giving up the office a revolt followed, led by General Crespo, an intelligent negro of considerable experience as a soldier, and even greater capacity as a statesman. Blanco, who was connected with the endeavors to drive Palacio from power, virtually conducted the government of Venezuela for thirty years, as military dictator, constitutional president, and chief political manager. Even when he was out of the presidential office and in Paris as Venezuelan minister, his creature, President Paul, obeyed his wishes. Blanco was a strong man and introduced many political reforms, restrained the encroachments of the clergy, introduced railways, and improved cities and harbors. Paul got tired of his patron at last, and when his term expired had Palacio, a creature of his own, elected president. This explains Blanco's support of the Crespo movement. The government forces were repeatedly defeated. President Palacio fled from the country, leaving Vice-President Villegas to contend with the revolutionists. Crespo triumphed over him and one or two others, and finally entered Caracas. In October, 1892, he was inaugurated as president. In the United States this whole dispute would have been decided at the polls or in the courts; that is not the way of doing things, however, in South American republics.

COLOMBIA, formerly known as New Granada, is one of the most progressive of the South American republics. Bolivar drove out the Spanish viceroy in 1819, and was made the first president of the republic, which then included Ecuador and Venezuela. In 1821 he was again elected, resigning in 1830. The country was known as the United States of Colombia from 1863 to 1886,

when the name was changed to the republic of Colombia. Of late years a strong effort has been made by the United States to increase its trade with the republic. The president is Rafael Nuñez.

The government consists of a president elected for six years, a senate of twenty-seven members (three from each department), and a house of representatives (one for each 50,000 population), elected by universal suffrage. The governors of the states are nominated by the president.

The population numbers about three million. Of these rather less than a million are whites, and about an equal number have a large admixture of Indian blood. The remainder are civilized Indians, savages, and the various crosses between whites, Indians, and negroes.

## Chapter XVIII.

### *PERU, ECUADOR, BOLIVIA, CHILE, PARAGUAY, URUGUAY.*

**PERU.**—The republic of Peru comprises 500,000 miles of territory, including a number of islands on the coast, all of which are noted for their guano deposits. A large portion of the Peruvians are of Spanish descent. The wealthier classes are well educated, it being a common thing for a Peruvian to speak several languages fluently. The aborigines are a docile, virtuous, and industrious people, who have not outgrown the ancient civilization of the Incas.

The country of the Incas was conquered by Pizarro about 1531, and was the last from which the Spaniards were expelled. In 1820 Gen. San Martin entered the country with a force of Chileans and Buenos Ayreans, and compelled the Spaniards to leave the country. The South Americans did not feel safe as long as a vestige of Spanish power remained on the continent. San Martin became protector of Peru in 1821, but resigned on account of unpopularity, and was succeeded by Bolivar as dictator. The government instituted by Bolivar was abolished in 1826, and a new constitution resembling that of the United States adopted.

Up to 1844 there was civil war almost constantly. General Castilla secured peace and became president in 1845, ruling well for six years; then came anarchy again. In 1858, while a revolutionary force was besieging Callao, several American vessels loading with guano were captured. This led to a long dispute with the United States; the Peruvians in 1873 agreed to pay damages. War occurred with Spain in 1868 over the possession of the Chincha islands; also with Chile in 1868 and again in 1879-81. Remigio M. Bermudez became president in 1890.

A remarkable work, known as the railroad above the clouds, has recently been completed by an English company. It extends from the Pacific ocean across the "desert" and over the coast range of Oroya in the Sierra. The proposal now is to continue the line across the second range into the Puna, when it will strike the Rio Perené at the foot of the falls on that stream, the head of steamboat navigation on the Amazon system. This will greatly increase the commercial importance of Peru.

**Government.**—The republic is divided into departments and *littoral provinces*, in imitation of the French system, on lines

marked by the physical geography of the country. Three ranges of mountains cross the country from north to south, known respectively as the Coast range, the Sierra, and the Cordillera. Generally the western departments cross the coast range, and include the valley above the Sierra, the dividing-line between them and the eastern departments, which in their turn extend to the eastern limits of Peru. The relation of these provinces to the national congress and the executive officers somewhat resembles that of our states to the federal government; as to internal government, they are entirely different. Each is governed by a prefect, or military governor, appointed by the president and directly responsible to him. The prefects have under them sub-prefects, and under them are other officers having charge of still smaller divisions. The cities elect their mayors and boards of councilmen. The national legislature is composed of a senate and a house of representatives.

ECUADOR is so named because it lies under the equator. It is pre-eminently the land of mountains. The people did not succeed in breaking away from Spanish rule until 1822, when the Spaniards were expelled from Quito. Ecuador did not exist as a distinct republic until 1830. In that year a civil war occurred, which separated the members of the Central American Free State, founded by Bolivar on the ruins of the Spanish colony and the kingdom of New Granada. Its history has been marked by alternations between despotism and anarchy. The dictatorship of President Gabriel Moreno, from 1861 to 1875, furnished the nearest approach to a permanent government. Moreno was assassinated, and Antonio Borrero succeeded him, only to be overthrown by Don José de Vientemilla, who claimed to be elected president in 1876, and who in 1878 had himself proclaimed dictator for an unlimited period. He was deposed in 1883, being succeeded by Senor Caamano, elected for four years; in 1888 Don Antonio Flores was inaugurated president for four years. The present ruler is Luis Cordero.

The law-making power consists of a president, vice-president, senate, and house of representatives. Both the senate and house of representatives are elected by universal suffrage for two years, the term of one half of each house expiring annually. Each of the ten provinces elects two senators and one representative for every 30,000 inhabitants or fraction over 15,000. The national judges are elected by congress.

The white or Spanish creoles, though small in number, maintain a leading position. A large portion of the people are of mixed descent.

BOLIVIA, named from its liberator, Bolivar, is an inland, mountainous country of South America. Its independence dates from the year 1825; it was formed out of what was known before that as Upper Peru. The constitution, which was drawn up by Bolivar, secured religious toleration, civil liberty, and equal rights.

The executive government consists of a president, a vice-president, and three secretaries of state. The legislative functions are exercised by three chambers—the senate, the chamber of tribunes, and the chamber of censors (appointed for life).

The country has often been torn by civil wars. In 1869 Gen. Melgarejo for a time assumed the government after the execution of a rival candidate, Gen. Belzu. The next president was Gen. Ballivian, who died in 1874, and was succeeded by Dr. Thomas Frias, who ruled till the outbreak of another insurrection in 1876. Gen. Daza then became president, but was deposed in 1880 in favor of Dr. N. Campero.

Early in May, 1890, Gen. Camacho, chief of the Liberal party in opposition to the Clerical party represented by President Arce, conspired to get possession of the government. The main agents of the conspiracy were imprisoned, and the insurgent forces were defeated. A conspiracy to murder the president was defeated in 1891. Another attempted revolution occurred in August, 1892, and Camacho, together with sixteen deputies, was exiled.

By the disastrous Chilean war Bolivia was shut off from her Pacific outlets, and she has been trying to extend her frontier to the Paraguay river, which would give her an outlet into the Atlantic. An arrangement with Paraguay to that effect has for some time been under consideration. English and German capitalists have also planned a railroad by which Bolivia's mineral deposits may be taken to the sea by three different routes.

CHILE occupies a narrow strip of territory along the west coast of South America for nearly 2300 miles. It is bounded on the north by Bolivia, which, by a narrow neck reaching to the Pacific, separates Chile from Peru. Up to 1881 Chile laid claim to the whole of Patagonia and Terra del Fuego, but in that year an agreement was reached by which the Argentine Republic retained all of that territory except a small strip on the west coast,—which was ceded to Chile, together with the Strait of Magellan and the western part of Terra del Fuego.

The population of Chile is chiefly of Spanish descent, and the Spanish language everywhere prevails. The property-holding class is wealthy and aristocratic, and the laboring people are oppressed and ill-paid. In the southern central provinces are many German, French, English, and some American colonists. The Araucanians, occupying a strip of country between 37° and 40° south latitude, are perhaps the most remarkable of the uncivilized races of America. They are brave, courteous, hospitable, and benevolent. In spite of the great power of the Spaniards, they maintained their independence for centuries; of late they have submitted to Chilean authority.

Under Spanish rule Chile was included in the viceroyalty of Peru. In 1816 the Chileans took the first step toward independence of Spain by deposing the Spanish president and putting in

his place a committee of seven to exercise executive powers. The first conflict between Chilean and Spanish troops occurred in 1811; in 1813 the country was compelled again to acknowledge the sovereignty of Spain. Another struggle for independence began in 1817 which ended in making Chile a nation. A dictatorship was established under Don Bernardo O'Higgins, a conspicuous hero, but until 1831 the country was in a continual state of anarchy. From 1833, the year of the adoption of the constitution, Chile's prosperity increased. A dispute with Bolivia in regard to the boundary-line between the two republics led to a war in which Chile was successful. Peru having sided with the defeated state, Chile engaged in a long and bloody war with that republic. Victory after victory was won by the Chileans, until finally, in January, 1881, the last Peruvian army was utterly routed, and Lima, the capital, was occupied by the enemy. By the treaty at the close of this war Chile annexed a portion of Bolivia, including the desert of Atacama; also the southern Peruvian province of Tarapaca.

**The Recent Civil War.**—When the Chilean republic was formed it was decided to have a president elected for five years, who could choose a council of fifteen, removable at his pleasure. The senators were elected for six years and the members of the chamber of deputies for three years. As the electors were members of the national guard the government usually controlled the elections. In spite of this defect in the system the government has been more stable than that of any of the South American republics.

All the presidents except José Balmaceda respected constitutional rights, and for a time after his elevation to office in 1886 his administration was a liberal and far-sighted one. But he craved a second term, and this, under Chilean law, was impossible; then he tried to satisfy his ambition by controlling the election of his successor. The congress rebelled, and forced him to change his cabinet. Balmaceda formed another cabinet servile to his purposes, and, the congress having refused to vote the budget, the president decreed it without their assent.

Then the congress, who controlled the navy and part of the army, in January, 1891, began a revolution. All the principal harbors were blockaded, and Arica and Coronel bombarded; also Iquique and Pisagua. In the mean time the congressional party having sent the steamer *Itata* to the United States for a cargo of arms and ammunition, she was captured (because to allow her to carry arms from this country would have been a violation of the neutrality law), but escaped from San Diego harbor. She was chased by the United States cruiser *Charleston* and surrendered at the port of Iquique. In August the congressional forces captured Valparaiso and Santiago. Balmaceda tried to escape from the country, but, failing to get away, shot himself.



United States Minister Egan was accused of taking the side of Balmaceda during the war. A foreign minister is supposed to be neutral during political contests and civil wars. His alleged action led to bad feeling against our government. In October, 1891, some sailors from the U. S. cruiser *Baltimore*, having gone ashore at Valparaíso, were attacked by a Chilean mob; several were injured and two killed. This brought the two countries almost to the verge of war, but the dispute was finally settled by Chile agreeing to pay damages.

In November, 1891, Admiral Jorge Montt became president. The country is again enjoying a period of peace and prosperity.

PARAGUAY was first settled by the Spaniards in 1535. The government established by the Jesuits in 1608 continued until 1758, when it was overthrown by the Brazilians and Spaniards. Paraguay gained its independence of Spain in 1811, and at the same time separated from the viceroyalty of the La Plata. The next year the administration was intrusted to two consuls, Yegros and Francia. Two years later Francia had himself proclaimed president, first for three years and afterward for life. He governed autocratically until his death in 1840, when he was succeeded by his nephews, Lopez and Alonzo. Three years later Lopez was elected president for ten years, and in 1854 was elected for a similar term, but died in 1862. He was succeeded by his son (Francisco), whom he had appointed vice-president. Don Francisco Lopez was dictator in 1865, when he began war with the surrounding nations of Brazil, the Argentine Confederation, and Uruguay. The war lasted till 1870, when Lopez was killed at the battle of Aquidaban, and the Paraguayan dictatorship was at an end.

Up to 1870 Paraguay was called a republic, but it was really an absolute though elective monarchy. The constitution proclaimed that year was modeled on that of the Argentine Confederation. It vests the legislative power in a senate and a house of representatives, and the executive in a president elected for a term of six years. Juan G. Gonzalez became president in September, 1890.

URUGUAY was at first included in the Spanish viceroyalty of the La Plata. It was then claimed and occupied by Brazil. After a war between La Plata and Brazil the independence of Uruguay was decreed in 1825 by both states as a condition of peace. The country has often been distracted by wars, both foreign and civil.

The present constitution dates from 1831. The laws are made by a parliament of two houses—the upper house consisting of ten members and the lower house of thirty-nine. When the parliament is not in session its powers are wielded by a permanent committee of two senators and five representatives. The executive power is held by a president elected for four years. The vice-president is ex-officio president of the senate. The president is

assisted by a cabinet of four secretaries, or heads of departments. Julio Herrera y Obes was inaugurated president March 1, 1890. Under Tajes, the predecessor of Obes, Uruguay passed from a military dictatorship to genuine republican government.

The national wealth is steadily increasing, the chief industries being stock-raising and sheep-farming. An English company located at Frey Bentos, on the Uruguay river, owns forty square leagues of pasture and slaughters yearly over 160,000 steers. Uruguay's financial condition is good, the currency being on a gold basis. The government is wisely encouraging immigration.

**Chapter XVIII.****CLASSIFICATION OF GOVERNMENTS.**

IN studying governments it is a good plan to select a type, study it thoroughly, and compare the others of the same class with it, and the classes with each other. Great Britain is a good example of a constitutional monarchy, in which there is a king, a parliament, and a responsible ministry. Russia may be taken as a type of a despotism, where the whole power emanates from the ruler. The United States of America is the leading type of the federal republic and France that of the centralized republic. The following is a classification of the leading governments of the world.

Sovereign States..	Constitutional Monarchies...	Great Britain, Germany, Belgium, Portugal, Spain, Netherlands, Denmark, Italy, Greece, Servia, Roumania, Japan.
	Despotisms....	Russia, Turkey, Montenegro, Persia, Morocco, China, Siam, Afghanistan.
	Federal Republics...	United States of America, Mexico, Colombia, United States of Brazil, Venezuela, Argentine Confederation, Liberia, Switzerland.

Sovereign States..	Centralized Republics...	France, Chile, Peru, Bolivia, Ecuador, Guatemala, Honduras, Nicaragua, San Salvador, Costa Rica, Haiti, Santo Domingo, Paraguay, Uruguay, Andorra, San Marino, Orange Free State.
Minor or Semi-protected States... ..		Hawaii, Sarawak, Madagascar, Samoa, Abyssinia, Zanzibar, Borneo, Nepaul, Annam.
Dependent States.	Colonial Dependencies..	Canada, Newfoundland, Cape Colony, New South Wales, Victoria, South Australia, Western Australia, Queensland, New Zealand, Tasmania, India, Transvaal, Congo State.
	Tributary States....	Egypt, Bulgaria, Tunis, Corea.
	Barbarous Pro- tected States.	There are many such states under the control of the stronger powers, espe- cially in Asia and Africa.

**Federations and Confederations.**

Federations.....	{	Republics.....	{ United States of America, Mexico, Colombia, United States of Brazil, Venezuela, Argentina, Liberia, Switzerland.
		Empire.....	{ Germany.
		Bipartite States...	{ Austria-Hungary, Sweden-Norway.
		Colonial Self-governing Dependency...	{ Dominion of Canada.
		{ Defunct organizations only, as— United States Confederation, Southern Confederacy, German Confederation, Swiss Confederation.	
*Confederations..	{		

\*The trouble with confederations is that the central government is not given sufficient power to maintain its authority, i.e., raise revenue, control finances, etc. For facts in regard to the different forms of government and the powers of government, see the Introduction.

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1. The first step in the process is to identify the problem or issue that needs to be addressed. This involves gathering information and understanding the context of the problem.

2. Once the problem is identified, the next step is to define the objectives and goals of the project. This helps to clarify what needs to be achieved and provides a clear direction for the work.

3. The third step is to develop a plan or strategy to address the problem. This involves breaking down the problem into smaller, manageable tasks and determining the resources and timeline needed to complete them.

4. The fourth step is to implement the plan. This involves putting the strategy into action and monitoring progress to ensure that the project is on track.

5. The final step is to evaluate the results of the project. This involves assessing the outcomes against the objectives and goals and identifying any lessons learned for future projects.

States army to the scene. Owing to the efforts of the regular troops, assisted by the militia, the disorders lessened, and finally the greatest railway strike in the history of the country collapsed.

The senate ratified the treaty excluding Chinese laborers from the country for a period of ten years.—Congress passed the act enabling Utah to become a state, and it was signed by the president.—The opening of the Cherokee strip in September, 1893, was followed by a great rush for homes; but most of the settlers were glad to get out of the territory a few months later.—Near the close of the World's fair a notable convention was held in Chicago which brought together representatives of Christianity, Buddhism, Mohammedanism, Confucianism, etc. The effect of the World's Parliament of Religions, in drawing the nations closer together, will be great and permanent.—The centennial celebration of the laying of the corner-stone of the national capitol took place Sept. 18, 1893.

In the spring of '94 Gov. Tillman's attempt to enforce the law in South Carolina providing that no liquor should be sold except at state dispensaries caused an insurrection in Darlington and Florence counties. The state troops finally succeeded in restoring order.—The United States international boundary commission in the fall of '94 completed the work of establishing 258 monuments marking the line between Mexico and the United States, from El Paso to the Pacific ocean.

**Canada.**—In June, '94, a congress of representatives of British colonies was held at Ottawa, at which Canada, Queensland, Victoria, New South Wales, South Australia, Tasmania, New Zealand, and Cape Colony were represented. The main object of the conference was to promote steam shipping and telegraphic communication with a view to the development of trade within the empire. A chief means to this end is the proposed laying of a Pacific cable between Canada and Australia.

**Mexico.**—This seems to be about the only one of the so-called Latin republics that has enjoyed immunity from revolutions. The country is therefore prospering. President Diaz's last report states that the finances are in excellent condition and that railroad building is active.

#### CENTRAL AND SOUTH AMERICA.

**Nicaragua.**—Early in April, '94, a force of Nicaraguans entered the town of Bluefields on the Mosquito coast. The Mosquitoes appealed to the British for protection, who sent marines ashore. The Nicaraguans say this was a violation of the Clayton-Bulwer treaty, while the British claim it was done to protect treaty rights. Our government is also interested, as the control of the canal now being built across the isthmus may be endangered; hence United States cruisers were sent there to protect American interests.

The Ministry of Education, under the leadership of the Minister of Education, has been working to improve the educational system. The Ministry has been successful in securing the passage of the Education Bill, which provides for the establishment of a Ministry of Education, and for the improvement of the educational system. The Ministry has also been successful in securing the passage of the Education Bill, which provides for the establishment of a Ministry of Education, and for the improvement of the educational system.

**Costa Rica**—The Ministry of Education, under the leadership of the Minister of Education, has been working to improve the educational system. The Ministry has been successful in securing the passage of the Education Bill, which provides for the establishment of a Ministry of Education, and for the improvement of the educational system.

**Colombia**—The Ministry of Education, under the leadership of the Minister of Education, has been working to improve the educational system. The Ministry has been successful in securing the passage of the Education Bill, which provides for the establishment of a Ministry of Education, and for the improvement of the educational system.

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factions, and hence there is likelihood of the rebellion being renewed.

**Paraguay.**—Gen. Egusquiza was elected president to fill the vacancy caused by the enforced resignation of President Gonzales in June, '94.

#### EUROPE.

**Great Britain.**—In March, '94, Mr. Gladstone was obliged, on account of failing eyesight, to retire from the premiership, and Lord Rosebery, who won favor with the people by bringing, as arbiter, a great coal strike to a close, succeeded him. The government therefore remains in the hands of the Liberals; they have not made much headway in carrying out their policy on account of the attitude of the house of lords. That body defeated the Irish home-rule bill; they so amended the employers' liability bill that the commons would not accept it; the parish councils bill, providing local government in the parishes, was stripped of many of the features the people wanted. For these offences against the democratic sentiment of the country there were loud demands for the abolition of the hereditary house. The time does not seem to have come, however, for ending this historic body.

Among the other bills the Rosebery government has on hand are one for the disestablishment of the Welsh church, another requiring semi-annual revision of the registration and reducing the residence qualification of voters to three months' time, a third for Scotch home-rule, a fourth for the relief of tenants in Ireland evicted since 1879, and a fifth to repeal the coercion bill of 1887. Although the Liberals are badly hampered, the tide of democracy is rising; labor is receiving more consideration; the peers cannot postpone necessary reforms much longer.—Early in 1894 the ship-canal connecting Manchester with the sea was opened.

**France.**—On June 24, '94, while President Carnot was riding in a carriage in Lyons he was fatally stabbed by an Italian anarchist. For a time the feeling in France against Italians was intense. Three days after the assassination the French senate and chamber elected M. Casimir-Perier president for the full term of seven years. Much sympathy was expressed on account of the death of the president, among the messages of condolence being one from the German emperor. There are signs that the feelings between France and Germany are not so bitter as they once were. Emperor William has shown a disposition to cultivate friendly feelings between the two countries.—Early in October, '94, a serious disagreement was threatened between France and England on account of the attempt of France to establish a protectorate over Madagascar.

**Germany.**—Emperor William, having secured the passage of

his army bill, had next to provide for the payment of the troops. Tax measures were proposed which aroused the most violent opposition. The policy of the government was to secure the passage of its measures by conciliating the Clericals. Therefore, a measure was put through repealing the law expelling the Jesuits, but this had to run the gauntlet of the state legislatures, where a vigorous opposition was organized against it.—The commercial treaty of Germany with Russia seems to cement good feeling between those powers.—Early in '94 a reconciliation took place between the emperor and Prince Bismarck, an event that greatly pleased the German people.—In May, '94, the upper house of the Bavarian diet agreed to place Otto, the insane king, under a guardianship, and to transfer the crown to Prince Luitpold, the regent and heir presumptive.

**Italy.**—The Italian government during the past few months has passed through the greatest crisis in its history. As a member of the triple alliance, Italy's expenses for maintaining an army have been so great that the revenue has constantly fallen behind the expenses, in spite of the fact that the people are heavily taxed. Added to this, there has been much corruption among public officers and considerable disturbance of the currency through bad financial management. So grave had the situation become late in 1893 that Premier Giolitti resigned and was succeeded by Signor Zanardelli. The latter was not able to cope with the difficulty, and Signor Crispi was again made head of the cabinet. Under his administration the insurrections in Sicily, which were violent early in the year, have been suppressed, and an effort has been made for a reconciliation with the church. The Pope sent word that reconciliation could not be effected until the Italian government left Rome, and this ended the matter.

**Switzerland.**—At the beginning of '94 M. Frei, a gentleman who served in the federal army during the civil war in America, took his seat as president of Switzerland.

**Belgium.**—In March, '94, King Leopold left Belgium just as the ministry resigned, and hence there was no responsible government left. Being found near Geneva, the king was notified of the state of affairs, but showed no disposition to return. The Socialists began to agitate the formation of a republic when Leopold returned and entrusted the late minister of the interior with the duty of forming a cabinet.

The suffrage has lately been enlarged, so that there are now in Belgium about 2,000,000 votes. Every Belgian above the age of 25 years is given one vote, under the new constitution; two votes are given to the married man above 25, two votes to the bachelor of 35, and three votes to men of property who are well educated or who hold public offices that imply the possession of special gifts and trained talent. Severe penalties are imposed on citizens who for any reason refrain from voting.

**Austria-Hungary.**—In October, 1893, the ministry of Count Taaffe, who for fourteen years had controlled the various factions of the Austrian reichsrath, was obliged to resign on account of the opposition aroused by the introduction of a bill providing for a far-reaching extension of the suffrage. The dispute between the lower house and the Clerical majority in the house of magnates over the civil marriage bill was settled by the passage of that bill by a small majority.—The funeral of Louis Kossuth in March was a great demonstration in honor of the man to whom Hungary owes her liberal government.

**Russia.**—On November 1, '94, Alexander III. died after a long illness. His son succeeded him as emperor as Nicholas II. It is too early to say what effect this change of rulers will have on European politics.—Work on the Siberian railroad has made considerable progress.

**Servia.**—The return of ex-King Milan unsettled things in this little kingdom in March, '94. Although Alexander promised that he would adhere to the constitution, Gen. Gruitch resigned and a new cabinet was formed with M. Simitch as premier. The new cabinet maintains a pacific policy towards Austria. The decrees expelling ex-King Milan and Queen Natalie were canceled.

**Bulgaria.**—In view of the cordiality established between the courts of St. Petersburg, Berlin, and Vienna, the crisis leading to the retirement of the cabinet of M. Stambouloff in May, '94, has a deep political significance. Stambouloff represented the national Bulgarian ideal, and was the main bulwark against Russian aggression. His retirement may be the first step toward the official recognition by Russia of Ferdinand's rule.

**Spain.**—A significant event in Spain was the withdrawal of Emilio Castelar from the Republican group in the cortes and his alliance with the Monarchists. While remaining true to his old Republican faith, he feels that the monarchy is the only stable government for Spain.

#### AFRICA.

**Morocco.**—The decision of Spain to strengthen the fortifications at Melilla incensed the Rifians, who attacked the garrison in large numbers. Several fierce battles were fought in which the Spaniards were generally successful. After the tribesmen had been subdued, the sultan promised to punish them, at the same time expressing his good will toward the Spanish government.

Muley Hassan, the sultan of Morocco, died in June, '94, some say of a fever, but others declare he was poisoned. His son, Abdul Aziz, was obliged to maintain his right to rule at the head of his army, as the succession to the throne was disputed by his uncle, Muley Ismail.

**Partitioning Territory.**—England and Germany having divided the Lake Tchad region between them, France has made all the more vigorous efforts on the upper Niger. The French flag now waves over Timbuctu, the famous city which for centuries admitted no foreigners within its precincts. In the great haste of European nations to get possession of African territory, the little republic of Liberia is in danger. The United States had to remonstrate against the attempt of France to get possession of seventy miles of Liberia's sea-coast.

In spite of the talk of evacuation, the British still hold possession of Uganda. Liberty of conscience has been proclaimed, and the country has been placed under a protectorate with a regularly organized administration.

**South Africa.**—The dream of Cecil Rhodes, the premier of South Africa, is to unite under one government the Transvaal, the Orange Free State, Zululand, Portuguese East Africa, and the territory owned and controlled by the British South Africa Company. The conquest of the Matabeles, which was not accomplished without some severe battles and much bloodshed, greatly increased his influence and will greatly help the accomplishment of his object. The most difficult thing for him to do is to get the English and Dutch to agree, for in Africa an Englishman and a Dutchman are always enemies. The general elections in the spring of '94 confirmed Mr. Rhodes in his premiership and still more unmistakably in his northern policy.

**Egypt.**—The British brought the young khedive to his senses by compelling him to dismiss an undesirable war minister and to appoint Zohrab Pasha, an Armenian, a Christian, and a friend of England.

The battles with slave-raiders in East and West Africa show that the slave-trade will die hard, but it must eventually fall before the advance of European arms.

#### ASIA.

**China, Japan, and Corea.**—A dispute arose during the summer of '94 between Japan and China over Corea which resulted in war. Corea, although claiming to be an independent country, is nominally the vassal of China and the servant of Japan. The reigning house and the powerful Min family, to which King Li Hung's queen belongs, together with a large portion of the people, have strong Chinese sympathies. They are conservative and wish to preserve old institutions, especially the miserably corrupt and rapacious government that taxes the people to the last limit of endurance. Japan, which has considerable commercial intercourse with Corea, would like to see Western ideas introduced. Some of the Coreans who have been in other countries know how

far their own country is behind the age. By reason of pressure brought to bear by these and Japan, the Korean government made a show at reform, but the changes were all in favor of the office-holders. The exactions were still so heavy that last spring a rebellion broke out in the province of Chullado. The rebels put the government army to flight, and then, at the instigation of the Chinese minister in Korea, a Chinese army was sent to assist in restoring order.

Many years ago China and Japan made an agreement that neither should send an army to Korea without first notifying the other. In this case China first sent the army and then notified Japan. The latter also sent an army, insisted upon reform in the government of Korea, and refused to withdraw its troops until order was restored. The dispute led to formal declarations of war.

So far as population and resources are concerned, Japan is greatly overmatched in this contest, but her army is better disciplined than the Chinese and the Japanese sailors are perfectly at home on the sea. The decisive battles already fought are the taking of Ping-An in September by the Japanese army, resulting in the destruction of the only effective Chinese army in Korea, and the defeat of the Chinese in a great naval battle near the mouth of the Yalu river. These battles placed Korea in the hands of the Japanese and the army began its march towards the Chinese border. Wi-ju, a walled city near the border, fell into their hands almost without a struggle, and Chi-fu was also captured. The cry then was, "On to Peking!" As October approached the Japanese saw that they must hasten their campaign and bring on a decisive battle before the intensely cold weather set in.

**Siam.**—The contest with France resulted in the cession by the Siamese government to the republic of land up to the left bank of the Mekong river.

#### AUSTRALASIA AND OCEANIA.

**New Zealand.**—An act was passed giving women the right to vote; they exercised their privilege first in the election in December, '93.

**Hawaii.**—During the winter and spring of '93-'94 there were heated discussions in the United States between those in favor of annexation of these islands and those opposed to it. When it was found that the restoration of Queen Liliuokalani was impossible, and the islands could not be annexed to the United States, the formation of a permanent government was begun. A convention met and drew up a constitution, and a republic was proclaimed July 4, '94. Sanford B. Dole, president of the provisional government, was made first president of the republic.

The executive of the new republic consists as before of a president and four ministers, who are *ex-officio* members of both houses of the legislature, with all the rights, powers, and privileges of members, except the right to vote. The legislature is composed of fifteen senators and fifteen representatives, sitting in separate houses. The representatives are chosen by voters who can read and write English well, or, if native Hawaiians, only their own vernacular. In order to vote for senators the voter must have an income of \$600 or else \$1500 worth of real estate, or \$3000 of personal property. The senators are elected for six years. Chinese and Japanese are excluded from voting, but certain other classes of foreigners who supported the provisional government are allowed to vote, without a knowledge of English. In case the two houses fail to agree on an appropriation, the government may continue its expenditures on the basis of the old appropriation bill. The term of the president is six years; he is elected by a majority of the two houses sitting together, and is not allowed to succeed himself.

**Samoa.**—Several insurrections have occurred in the islands during '93 and '94. The people seem uneasy under the tripartite protectorate of Germany, England, and the United States. New Zealand has offered to annex and care for the islands; from certain standpoints that would not be a bad solution of the difficulty.

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